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In this Issue . . . **Draft of "fathers" in petroleum industry . . $500 houses in 1943 . . War conversion of metalworking industry**

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

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+ HUGH S. HANNA, EDITOR +

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This Issue in Brief

Effect of draft of "fathers" on the petroleum industry.

A study by the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicates that pre-Pearl Harbor fathers constituted 29 percent of the total labor force in petroleum refineries and 27 percent in other divisions of the industries. Those eligible for reclassification in 1–A formed about 23 percent of the total in petroleum refining, but obviously a considerably smaller proportion will finally be drafted. Page 1053.

Construction of $500 houses in 1943.

It is estimated by the Bureau of Labor Statistics that about 17,000 of the houses constructed in 1943 cost $500 or less. In general these are 1- or 2-room dwellings, built of used materials, and (although intended for year-round occupancy) without such conveniences as electric light, inside plumbing, etc. Page 1058.

Public attitude toward ex-servicemen after World War I.

In 1919, stirring public demonstrations of welcome to returning members of the American Expeditionary Forces were succeeded in some places by active efforts to place them in employment, in others by more or less indifference to their fate. A study by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the public press of that time reveals the attitudes of the men themselves and of the employers, but particularly the lack of a well-coordinated general reemployment policy. A selection of episodes, chosen as giving the highlights of the servicemen's situation and actions and the public reaction thereto, is given on page 1060.

Ordnance workers in 1918 and 1943.

Extensive changes in the organization and policy of ordnance plants have evolved since 1918, but many wartime production problems of that period persist today. The article on page 1074 brings together the available data on the labor conditions in ordnance plants in 1918 and in 1943. Larger proportions of women in the labor force, pay more nearly equal to that of men, and a greater use of 3-shift operation constitute some of the differences in the industry today as compared with 1918.

Conversion of metalworking industries to war production, 1939–43.

Plants employing 46 percent of the wage earners in 35 metalworking industries had changed their major product from civilian goods to combat munitions by April 1943. Employment in plants whose principal product was the same as before the war amounted to 42 percent of the total in these industries, and the remaining 12 percent was in plants which had shifted to other noncombat products. Workers in converted metalworking establishments represented about 60 percent of the total employed in the manufacture of ordnance products. Because conversion facilitated the transfer of the resources of civilian industries to war production, it has exerted a stabilizing influence on employment in these industries. Page 1082.

Labor conditions in Rumania.

Of Rumania's gainfully occupied persons (58.4 percent of the total population), by far the greater number were engaged in agriculture, fishing, and mining. Only 7.2 percent of the gainfully occupied were found in the manufacturing and mechanical industries. Wages were generally fixed by collective agreement and were subject to deductions for social insurance and taxes ranging from 17 to 21 percent. Page 1102.

Productivity in lead and zinc mining.

More lead and zinc ore was extracted per man-hour in 1942 than before the war. Because of the declining metallic content of the ore, however, the productivity in terms of recoverable lead and zinc has been declining since 1939. Both of these metals are essential to war production. The attainment of production goals will depend primarily on the success of the industry in overcoming its labor shortage. Page 1116.

Union agreements in the aluminum-fabrication industry.

Approximately 90 percent of the workers within the aluminum industry are working under agreements with various international unions. Almost half of the organized workers are under agreement with the Aluminum Workers of America (C. I. O.). A topical analysis of 20 agreements (in effect October 1943) in the aluminum-fabrication industry is given in an article on page 1131.

Eye injuries in shipyards.

Eye injuries constitute one of the greatest single hazards in shipyards. In the first 5 months of 1943 they accounted for more than 1 in every 5 disabling accidents. Although prevention of such accidents presents considerable difficulties because of the working conditions peculiar to the yards, the data indicate that by far the greater number of them are preventable. Page 1151.

Displacement of European populations.

More than 30 million men, women, and children have been torn from their homes and their native soil during the present war, according to a recent International Labor Office report. In addition, there are millions of persons who, without having left their native countries, are not living at home because they have been conscripted for labor service or evacuated from bombed cities and coastal defense areas. Page 1167.

Social guaranties in Costa Rica.

A floor under wages, a ceiling over hours, paid vacations, right to bargain collectively, and certain other guaranties are provided for the workers in Costa Rica by a recent amendment to the constitution of their country. Page 1175

Living costs in fluorspar-mining area.

The first official survey of retail prices and rents in the Illinois-Kentucky fluorspar-mining area was made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics at the request of the War Labor Board for the purpose of determining a wage-stabilization program for the area. Comparisons of living costs in this area were made with those for St. Louis, Mo. For all items, the increase in cost of living between March 15, 1941, and April 15, 1943, was 21.9 percent for St. Louis and 20.0 percent for the fluorspar-mining area. Page 1231.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

FOR DECEMBER 1943

Effect of Draft of "Fathers" on the Petroleum Industry[1]

Summary

THE Bureau of Labor Statistics, at the request of and in cooperation with the Petroleum Administration for War, made an analysis of available Selective Service Replacement Schedules now in force, to determine the extent to which the draft of "pre-Pearl Harbor fathers" may affect the personnel of the petroleum industry. This industry is called upon to provide vast quantities of fuels and lubricants for naval vessels, aircraft, and mechanized military equipment; it also must produce large amounts of synthetic rubber components, and toluene, from which TNT is made. In addition, it must continue to supply fuel for essential civilian motor transportation and oil for heating homes. The administrative, technical, and skilled operating personnel needed to man the vital facilities in the Government's aviation gasoline and synthetic rubber programs has also been drawn largely from the petroleum refineries. The Bureau's study is of interest not only because the petroleum industry is playing a strategic role in the war effort but also because the experience of this industry may suggest the effect which the draft will have on other industries.

The analysis of available Replacement Schedules indicates that "fathers" (that is, men between the ages of 18 and 38, not classified in 4–F, and who have children "under 18 and born on or before September 14, 1942") comprise 29 percent of total employment in petroleum refineries and 27 percent of the total in other divisions of the petroleum industry. Not all of these "fathers" will be subject to reclassification into 1–A, however, since some are on the War Manpower Commission list of critical occupations, some have occupational deferments from their local boards, some will reach the age of 38 before induction, and some will be found ineligible for service upon physical examination. If only persons in jobs included in the War Manpower Commission list of 149 critical occupations are regarded as being assured of deferment in the future, the "fathers" eligible for reclassification into 1–A would represent about 23 percent of total employment in petroleum refining. Since many of these "fathers" have jobs requiring skill and training, the draft of a substantial number would add greatly to the manpower difficulties of the petroleum industry.

Scope of the Inquiry

In making its study, the Bureau of Labor Statistics examined Replacement Schedules for 148 petroleum refineries and 98 establish-

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Productivity and Technological Development Division by George E. Sadler under the supervision of Irving H. Siegel.

ments in such other petroleum-industry divisions as exploration and development, drilling, crude-petroleum production, marketing, and research. The refineries were employing 71,308 persons, or more than two-thirds of the total for all refineries in the United States. The nonrefining units had a force of 31,678 persons, a large but unknown proportion of the corresponding national total.

To ascertain the occupational distribution of "fathers," the Bureau analyzed in detail a sample of available Replacement Schedules for refineries and, in addition, all the available schedules for establishments engaged in exploration and development. The refining sample included 46 establishments employing 25,981 workers, distributed regionally in roughly the same proportions as the larger number of employees in the 148 refineries. The 14 exploration and development units had 2,078 workers engaged in prospecting (electrical, gravity, geochemical, magnetic, and seismic), geophysical laboratory work, land work and scouting, shallow exploratory drilling, and well servicing. Though this division of the petroleum industry is small and unstable, the function it performs is extremely important in maintaining the production of oil at necessary levels during the remainder of the war.

Characteristics of the Work Force

Petroleum refineries.—As may be seen from table 1, about 94 percent of the employees in the 148 petroleum refineries were males. More than half of all the workers were men over 37 years of age, and 39 percent of the total were males in the eligible age group, 18 to 38 years, not classified in 4–F. "Fathers" comprised almost three-quarters of the latter group, or 29 percent of total employment.

TABLE 1.—*Percentage Distribution of Employees in 148 Petroleum Refineries* [1]

Age and sex of workers	148 refineries	Petroleum Administration for War District [2]—				
		I	II	III	IV	V [3]
Male employees	93.7	95.4	93.9	93.1	91.4	84.5
Under 18 years of age	.4	.4	.3	.5	.8	1.6
18 to 38 years of age	38.7	33.3	43.2	40.4	37.4	26.3
"Fathers" [4]	28.7	22.2	32.0	31.8	30.1	20.4
Other	10.0	11.1	11.2	8.6	7.3	5.9
Over 37 years of age	51.1	58.1	47.1	48.7	51.1	52.8
38 to 45 years of age	13.9	12.2	7.3	20.6	16.1	21.9
45 years of age and over	20.7	20.5	13.1	26.8	23.6	30.9
Over 37 years of age, not specified	16.5	25.4	26.7	1.3	11.3	.....
Unfit for military service	3.5	3.6	3.3	3.5	2.1	3.8
Female employees	6.3	4.6	6.1	6.9	8.6	15.5
Total employed	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
"Fathers" in "key" positions [5]	10.5	9.0	12.2	10.0	14.5	9.2

[1] These refineries employ 71,308 employees distributed as follows: District I, 20,136; district II, 22,948; district III, 24,050; district IV, 1,612; and district V, 2,562.

[2] For States included in the various districts see footnote 2, p. 1055.

[3] Since coverage in district V is relatively low, the percentages for this district are probably less reliable than those for the other regions.

[4] Refers to men 18 to 38 years of age, not in 4–F, and who have children "under 18 and born on or before Sept. 14, 1942."

[5] As here defined, men in key positions include such nonexecutive employees as superintendents, supervisors, foremen, chemists, engineers, stillmen, assistant stillmen, process operators, first- and second-class stillman helpers, first- and second-class craftsmen, and others normally requiring relatively long training and a high degree of skill.

Nonrefining establishments.—Of the employees in nonrefining activities, 84 percent were males (table 2). Men over 37 years of age comprised 43 percent of total employment, while men between 18 and 38, not classified in 4-F, formed 36 percent of the total. "Fathers" constituted about four-fifths of the latter group, or 27 percent of total nonrefining employment.

TABLE 2.—*Percentage Distribution of Employees in 98 Nonrefining Establishments in Petroleum Industry* [1]

Age and sex of workers	98 nonrefining establishments	Petroleum Administration for War District—			
		I	II	III	V
Male employees	84.4	81.8	77.8	88.3	81.8
Under 18 years of age	1.2	1.4	0.4	1.2	1.7
18 to 38 years of age	35.8	42.8	36.7	36.5	26.4
"Fathers" [2]	27.2	26.6	25.7	29.5	22.3
Other	8.6	16.2	11.0	7.0	4.1
Over 37 years of age	43.4	33.7	37.0	46.9	48.3
38 to 45 years of age	21.2	15.6	17.0	22.3	27.3
45 years of age and over	21.4	16.2	16.7	24.6	21.0
Over 37 years of age, not specified	8.8	1.9	3.3	----	----
Unfit for military service	4.0	3.9	3.6	3.7	5.4
Female employees	15.6	18.2	22.2	11.7	18.2
Total employees	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[1] These nonrefining establishments, engaged in exploratory and development work, drilling, crude-petroleum production, marketing, and research, employ 31,678 persons distributed as follows: District I, 4,799; district II, 5,528; district III, 16,110; and district V, 5,241. No establishments in district IV are included.

[2] See footnote 4, table 1.

The distributions varied from region to region. Men under 38 years of age having minor children comprised 20 and 22 percent of refining employment in Petroleum Administration for War Districts [2] V and I, respectively, and more than 30 percent of the total in each of the other three districts.[3] In nonrefining also, "fathers" in district V constituted the smallest percentage, 22; the percentages for districts I, II, and III fell between 26 and 30.

Exploration and development.—Examination of the schedules for 14 establishments engaged in exploration and development work revealed a higher proportion of men in the eligible age group as well as a higher proportion of men classified in 4–F. About 89 percent of all the employees were male; 21 percent were men over 37; 48 percent, men between the ages of 18 and 38; and 13 percent, men classified in 4–F. In petroleum refining, boys under 18 were a negligible percentage of the total, but in exploration and development they comprised 7 percent of all employment. "Fathers" in the eligible age group constituted 29 percent of the total labor force, the same as in refining and slightly more than the average for nonrefining activities. The per-

[1] The 5 Petroleum Administration for War Districts include the following States: District I—Maine, Massachusetts, Vermont, Connecticut, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, NewYork, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Maryland, Virginia, Delaware, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida; district II—North Dakota, South Dakota, Minnesota, Michigan, Wisconsin, Nebraska, Iowa, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Kansas, Missouri, Kentucky, Tennessee, Oklahoma; district III—New Mexico, Texas, Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama; district IV—Montana, Idaho, Wyoming, Utah, Colorado; district V—Washington, Oregon, California, Nevada, Arizona.

[2] Since coverage of refineries in district V is limited, the percentages for this district are probably less reliable than those for other regions.

centage distribution in the 14 establishments studied [4] is shown in the tabulation below:

	Percent of total
Male employees	89.5
Under 18 years of age	7.0
18 to 38 years of age	48.2
"Fathers" [1]	29.2
Other	19.0
Over 37 years of age	21.4
38 to 45 years of age	14.5
45 years of age and over	6.9
Unfit for military service	12.9
Female employees	10.5
Total employees	100.0
Male employees on War Manpower Commission list: [2]	
Total	42.1
"Fathers"	16.7

[1] See footnote 4, table 1.
[2] See text below.

Position of "Fathers"

More than one-third of the "fathers" in the 148 refineries—10 percent of the total labor force—occupied important nonexecutive positions normally filled by men with relatively long training and a high degree of skill (table 1). These "key" men included superintendents, supervisors, foremen, chemists, engineers, stillmen, assistant stillmen, process operators, first- and second-class stillman helpers, first- and second-class craftsmen, etc.

A more intensive study was made of employment in 46 refineries to determine the proportion of "fathers," particularly those in key positions, included in the War Manpower Commission list of 149 critical occupations and consequently having a more tangible claim to deferment. This list was promulgated by the Selective Service System in its Local Board Memorandum No. 115, as amended August 16, 1943. The analysis indicated that about one-fifth of all "fathers" occupied critical positions, and that more than one-half of the "fathers" in key jobs were on the critical list. Thus, it appears that, in general, "fathers" who might eventually be reclassified to 1–A comprise about 23 percent of total employment in refineries. The percentages, however, vary from region to region. In district V, for example, about one-third of the "fathers" were on the critical list; but in district III, only about one-sixth. The effect of the draft will also be felt at all skill levels and in all refining departments, but most particularly at the lower skill levels and in the process and maintenance departments. It should be noted, however, that the "fathers" ultimately drafted will doubtless comprise considerably less than 23 percent of total employment; of the "fathers" reclassified to 1–A, some may be retained through Replacement Schedules now in force or to be re-negotiated, some will be physically ineligible, some may reach 38 years of age before they are called, and some may be deferred on the basis of hardship.

[4] The 14 exploration and development establishments, engaged in prospecting, geophysical laboratory work, landwork and scouting, shallow exploratory drilling, and well servicing, are in Texas and California. They employed 2,078 persons at the time of the Bureau's study.

The following tabulation shows the proportion "fathers" in critical occupations in the 46 refineries constituted of all "fathers" and of those in key positions, in each of the districts of the Petroleum Administration for War:

	"Fathers" in critical occupations, as percent of—	
	All "fathers"	*All "fathers" in "key" positions* [1]
All districts	20. 9	53. 8
District I	22. 8	53. 9
District II	20. 7	51. 2
District III	17. 2	54. 3
District IV	25. 2	51. 9
District V	33. 2	75. 5

[1] See footnote 5, table 1, for examples of "key" positions.

The outlook for exploration and development is brighter than for refineries. At the time of the Bureau's survey more than two-fifths of all employees and almost three-fifths of all "fathers" in the exploration and development branch of the industry were on the War Manpower Commission list of critical occupations. Thus, "fathers" not on the critical list comprised only one-eighth (12.5 percent) of the total employment.

Construction of $500 Houses in 1943[1]

SEVERE housing shortages, together with Government restrictions on residential building in order to conserve scarce building materials, have resulted in increased construction of houses with permit valuations of $500 or less. In general, these are small units, intended for year-round occupancy but providing only the barest minimum of shelter requirements.

During 1940 and 1941, slightly over 2 percent of all new privately financed family dwelling units started were built at an estimated construction cost of less than $500. In mid-1942, after the War Production Board had issued Conservation Order L–41, prohibiting nonpriority construction of dwelling units costing over $500 (reduced to $200 in September 1942), approximately 6 percent of the privately financed units being built had permit valuations of less than $500. By the summer of 1943, the units in this cost class had increased to about 10 percent of the total privately financed. It is estimated that, on this basis, the number of such houses built in 1943 would approximate 17,000, out of a total of about 170,000 dwellings constructed. This 17,000 represented an increase of about a third above 1941, when pre-war privately financed residential construction was at its height; in that year, altogether about 620,000 privately financed dwellings were built.

Although the housing shortages which exist in many areas are primarily responsible for the current volume of construction of this type of house, in many communities the construction of these houses is an accepted practice, allowable under existing building codes in certain sections of the cities. Some cities have building codes prohibiting such construction within the corporate limits but are unable to prevent it in adjacent unincorporated territory. The codes of other cities, while generally prohibiting this construction, have been temporarily suspended or amended from time to time. Consequently there is always some construction of these extremely low-cost houses.

The building officials' comments suggest that for this type of house the permit valuations substantially understate actual construction costs, after including the value of the builder's own labor, the value of second-hand materials used, and the cost of labor for installing second-hand materials—items specifically excluded from "construction cost" as defined by Conservation Order L–41. Apparently, in order to avoid possible conflict, permit valuations are commonly estimated in accordance with the War Production Board's definition.

Scope of Study

The estimates presented here were based on building-permit data compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Building-permit reports received by the Bureau for July 1943 included reports from 107 cities in which the average valuation of all units for which permits were issued was less than $500.[2] Building officials reporting these

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Construction and Public Employment by George Schumm.

[2] The reports show only the total number of units and the total permit valuation for each of 3 types of dwelling units for which permits have been issued during the month. The total number of units valued at less than $500 for which permits were issued during July is thus in excess of the number reported by these 107 cities.

permits were requested to submit descriptions of the units, particularly with respect to size, plumbing, electrical connections, foundations, and materials. They were also asked whether the units were being built for sale, for rent, or for the builder's personal use. Replies were received from 79 cities, in respect to 247 units. Of these units, some 5 percent should not have been classified as new dwelling units [3] and the permit for 1 unit had been canceled.

Characteristics of Dwellings Costing $500 or Less

The officials' replies indicated that houses of this type, built in all sections of the country and in communities of all sizes, have many features in common. In general, they meet no more than minimum shelter requirements and have very little in the way of modern conveniences. A typical unit was described by one building inspector as a "2-room dwelling consisting of living room and kitchen. Wood post foundation, outside privy, no plumbing, no wiring, constructed of used material, and for builder's personal use. Cost $275."

The outstanding characteristics of the units for which descriptions were obtained may be summarized briefly as follows:

Size.—Three-fourths of the units had either 1 or 2 rooms; less than 2 percent had more than 4 rooms. Over two-thirds of the units had a total floor area of less than 350 square feet.

Plumbing and electric wiring.—Six of every 7 had no interior plumbing and 9 of every 10 had no electrical wiring. Many of the units were in outlying, unimproved areas and probably would not contain these features even if the builder could obtain the necessary materials. Some of the units situated in improved areas were to be modernized when restrictions on critical materials were lifted, but they constituted a small minority of this type of house.

Materials.—Over half of the units were to be built almost entirely of used materials, and substantial quantities of such materials were to be incorporated in most of the others. In a number of cases the materials, new and used, had been in the possession of the builders for a considerable period of time. Wood was the principal building material used in over 90 percent of the units, the remainder being constructed of cement, cinder, or adobe blocks.

Foundations.—Over half of the units had no foundations beyond wooden piers; the majority of the remainder had either brick or concrete piers for support. Those having permanent footings included not only dwellings erected on existing foundations but also those which were basement units (i. e., basements to be used temporarily for living quarters, with the expectation of completing the superstructure at some future date).

Occupancy.—The large majority of these units were to be built and occupied by their owners.

[3] Improperly classified units included moved units, units added by alterations, and major repair jobs.

Public Attitude Toward Ex-Servicemen After World War I[1]

Summary

THE public attitude toward the returned servicemen and their problems, during the first half of 1919, in the light of the prevailing economic conditions, was reflected in the public press of that period.

The post-war slump in industry and the influx of demobilized soldiers resulted in widespread unemployment which spread rapidly during the first quarter of 1919. The area of greatest surplus of labor extended westward from Massachusetts to the Mississippi River, and included the great industrial centers where the war work had been centralized, as well as the important Lakes ports. There was also a surplus of labor in the large cities along the Pacific Coast.

On the other hand, there was a shortage of labor in the regions along the Atlantic Coast, southward from Philadelphia to Florida and extending inland to West Virginia, eastern Tennessee, and Alabama. The United States Employment Service reported that this labor shortage occurred mainly in areas which were largely agricultural, and might be the result of labor forces lost during the war by the less-industrialized South to the war industries of the North.

By the late spring of 1919, the general employment situation was improving and the returning soldiers were more readily absorbed. Although there was still a surplus of labor in the mechanical industries, and among the white-collar clerical groups, there was a very great shortage of farm labor in many places.

By June 1919, about 2,700,000 soldiers, or nearly two-thirds of the total wartime strength of the Army, had been demobilized.

Most of these ex-servicemen returned home and quietly resumed their former lives. Only a small proportion of the total number of returning members of the American Expeditionary Forces remained in the cities near the demobilization camps, but those who did remain constituted a serious problem at a time when the employment situation was critical in the large industrial centers in many regions and they added to the difficulty of placing the ex-servicemen who were former residents.

It was the story of this latter group of ex-servicemen that found its way into the daily press and labor journals throughout the country. Partly because the activities of this unabsorbed group were the exception rather than the rule, and partly because their participation in strikes, riots and other labor crises made sensational reading, both the daily papers and the labor journals gave considerable space to these events.

The episodes here presented were selected as illustrating some of the problems that arose in connection with military demobilization at the conclusion of the last war. They indicate editorial opinion regarding the demobilized servicemen, as reflected in the labor journals and metropolitan dailies in various parts of the country. They reflect the point of view of the ex-serviceman himself toward such problems as his job and his employer, as well as the attitude of the employer

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Post-war Labor Problems by Mary Frost Jessup, under the direction of Stella Stewart.

toward the reemployment of the ex-soldier, -sailor, and -marine. They indicate also the type of events, regarding returned servicemen, that found their way into the public press at the time. Finally, they reveal the major problems that attended demobilization during the post-war dislocation of industry, some of the effects of the wholesale dismissal of hundreds of thousands of men accustomed to the discipline of Army and Navy life, and—more important—the obvious lack of an effective general reemployment policy involving the cooperation of labor, management, and government throughout the country.

These episodes happened once, and may happen again at the conclusion of this war, unless effective steps are taken to prevent their recurrence. In any event, the incidents provide food for thoughtful consideration.

Scope and Method of Study

The newspapers and journals reviewed in this study were selected to obtain a balanced viewpoint as to the type of publication and the geographic areas represented and to reflect the opinions of various groups. Fifteen leading weekly labor journals throughout the country were selected for analysis, most of which represented the point of view of the American Federation of Labor. Six metropolitan dailies were examined, five of which were leading papers with large circulations on the East Coast at ports of debarkation; the sixth was a daily on the West Coast, which was included in order to obtain a balanced opinion on the labor situation which was critical in that region at the time.

The news articles of the period, dealing with demobilization, were largely concerned with the problem of the returned serviceman in his quest for a job, and with situations in which ex-soldiers and -sailors became involved in labor disputes. It is necessary to bear in mind that these incidents are not necessarily typical, but represent the kinds of information concerning the ex-serviceman that the general public received through the medium of certain leading labor journals and metropolitan dailies throughout the country. The news items in the labor weeklies were particularly valuable in that they gave information concerning the attitude of the local unions toward the demobilized serviceman, not stressed in any other type of paper. The metropolitan dailies reported only the more sensational clashes between labor and management, in which ex-soldiers were involved. Reports of these events in the labor journals often presented other aspects of the situation and helped to round out the picture of what really happened.

The episodes recorded in the press concerning the group of ex-servicemen who were not immediately absorbed by industry, or did not become adjusted to post-war living conditions, are inextricably bound up with labor conditions in communities of varying size, ranging from the large industrial centers to small towns and rural districts in various parts of the country. Although the coverage of certain topics may appear meager, such accounts as are available are important because they represent the type of information the general public received through the medium of newspapers and labor journals, and were often the only available source of official news.

The following periodicals were reviewed for information on military demobilization during the first half of 1919.

Labor journals

Labor Clarion, San Francisco, Calif.—Official journal of the San Francisco Labor Council.
Progressive Labor News, Bridgeport, Conn.—Official organ of Lodge No. 30, Machinists' Union, Bridgeport, Conn.
Connecticut Labor Press, New Haven, Conn.
Tampa Citizen, Tampa, Fla.—Endorsed by Florida State Federation of Labor and Tampa Central Trades and Labor Assembly.
Journal of Labor, Atlanta, Ga.—Official paper of Atlanta Federation of Trades and Allied Unions.
The New Majority, Chicago, Ill.—Official journal of Chicago Federation of Labor.
Labor Leader, Baltimore, Md.
Boston Labor World, Boston, Mass.—Official organ of Boston Central Labor Union.
Detroit Labor News, Detroit, Mich.—Organ of Detroit Federation of Labor.
Observer, Grand Rapids, Mich.
Minneapolis Labor Review, Minneapolis, Minn.—Official organ of Central Labor Union of Minneapolis and Hennepin County, Minneapolis Building Trades Council, United Card and Label Council, and Minnesota Pipe Trades Association.
Cleveland Citizen, Cleveland, Ohio—Official organ of Cleveland Federation of Labor.
Houston Labor Journal, Houston, Tex.
Seattle Union Record, Seattle, Wash.—Official organ of Central Labor Council of Seattle and vicinity.
Wheeling Majority, Wheeling, W. Va.—Official organ of Ohio Valley Trades and Labor Assembly.

Metropolitan newspapers

Boston Evening Transcript, Boston, Mass.
Christian Science Monitor, Boston, Mass.
New York Times, New York, N. Y.
Dallas Morning News, Dallas, Tex.
Atlanta Constitution, Atlanta, Ga.
Post-Intelligencer, Seattle, Wash.
Occasional references to news items were also obtained from various other publications noted in the article.

General Reception of Returned Servicemen

Returning troops of the American Expeditionary Forces landed at various ports on the Atlantic Coast, and were placed in half a dozen nearby debarkation camps. From there they were sent to 30 demobilization centers all over the country. The War Department arranged that detachments of regiments made up of men from the same localities should be returned to demobilization centers in the regions where they had been recruited. Here they were dismissed with cash to pay their fare home.

The papers were full of glowing descriptions of the plans for civic welcomes, parades, banquets, and entertainments. After the initial receptions were over, however, the returned "heroes" were often left to cool their heels in employment offices or to walk the streets in search of any kind of employment that would keep body and soul together. In the larger cities, many took to peddling "welcome home" signs and various small articles, which they displayed on street corners and in house-to-house canvassing, while still in uniform.

With the aid of the Committee for National Defense, the U. S. Employment Service through its local agencies promoted employment opportunities throughout the United States, and enlisted the support of various groups of businessmen and civic organizations, military councils, and churches. The local labor unions also were active in

trying to place ex-servicemen, and made a practice of waiving initiation fees for men who could qualify for membership.

Many thousands of ex-servicemen remained, however, in the big cities near the demobilization centers, some of them because they were restless, were attracted by city life, and craved excitement after the strain of their war experiences, and others because they hoped to better themselves by obtaining jobs at high wages in urban industrial centers. The following report describes these groups and the pull of the larger communities upon former residents of small towns and rural districts.

> Yanked by the draft from the quiet and peaceful pursuits of husbandry and hurled into the vortex of war the soldier boy from the rural districts is now yearning for the bright lights of the city. He has had too much excitement to return to the farm and every day some of these boys in khaki make application at the Wheeling office of the Federal Employment Service. * * *
>
> Some of them are farmer boys, some of them are country school teachers, and some are residents of the small country towns, but all are looking for city jobs in the mill—anywhere. They have not only seen much excitement during the war, but they are lured to the city by the stories of high wages. (Wheeling, W. Va., Majority, Feb. 13, 1919.)

Although a great deal of comment appeared in the press regarding the difficulty that the returned servicemen were experiencing in adapting themselves to their former environments, little was said regarding the obligation of the smaller communities to attract the men home. The YMCA issued a report of a survey which covered this aspect of the problem.

> The investigation conducted during the past 2 months by the traveling secretaries of the YMCA demobilization service has convinced us that the fault lies almost entirely with the communities from which the men have gone. They are not in tune with the true spirit of American energy; there is little, if any, civic or community development in the majority of small towns. It is notable that the desire to return to their home towns varies among ex-servicemen almost proportionately to the enterprise and "get up" of these towns. A really live town is likely to get back the greater part of its servicemen, while the other kind eventually will lose them all. * * * Much has been said about the soldier coming back with new ideas of life and affairs. The statement is unqualifiedly true. But the trouble is that, while this is accepted as a fact, no visible effort has heretofore been made to adjust the community to his changed ideas. (Seattle Post-Intelligencer, Apr. 3, 1919.)

A widely quoted speech by a professor of economics at Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and consulting economist for the U. S. Department of Labor, emphasized the responsibility of the Federal Government in the creation of employment for soldiers and demobilized war workers. "Society as a whole," this authority pointed out, "in its Federal Government or through its smaller forms of organization—the State, county, or city—must assume this responsibility. The Nation was responsible for the war, and it has a responsibility in restoring the country to peace conditions." [2]

The relationship between the obligation of former employers and that of the community toward ex-servicemen was discussed in an editorial, entitled "The Soldier and His Job," which read in part:

> There are one or two aspects to the discharged soldier that need clear statement and clear thinking, both because they are easy to be confused and because a deliberate effort will be made to confuse them. * * * For the Seattle soldier who left a job here in Seattle to go into the Army, his former employer is responsible. But the employers of Seattle are not responsible for all the men who may be discharged at Camp Lewis and who feel a preference for the Puget Sound country.

[2] Boston Labor World, February 15, 1919.

It is the duty of every citizen, employer or otherwise, to help the Government to the fullest extent of his ability. This can be done by giving the discharged soldier his old job or by giving a soldier a job wherever it is possible to do so. But it requires no arguments to prove that there cannot be a wholesale turning out of employees in Seattle to furnish employment to discharged soldiers who before the war were employed somewhere else.

These men, it is true, are entitled to employment, but that is a community responsibility * * *. This does not absolve the employer from the responsibility of giving the old job back to the returned soldier, but it does absolve him from the necessity of employing all soldiers who ask for employment. (Seattle Post-Intelligencer, Jan. 20, 1919.)

Employment Problems

EDITORIALS ON JOBS FOR EX-SERVICEMEN

Little difference appeared between the opinions expressed in editorials in the labor journals and those of the metropolitan press at the beginning of 1919. The public was reminded in editorials everywhere that returned soldiers expected something more tangible than a cordial welcome of brass bands and empty promises. What they wanted were jobs.

The following editorial is typical of the best of the articles on the subject of finding jobs for returned servicemen.

A fighting soldier is a hero; a returned soldier is a working man out of a job.

No wonder the boys cling to their uniforms a while after they are discharged—Some of them have no other clothes to put on, and no money; there are returned soldiers in Wheeling who drew only their subsistence money, and are still awaiting their back pay; most of them who drew every cent due found but little left when their insurance premiums and allotments had been deducted. Practically all of them find all interest in their welfare gone when they slip into their unobtrusive civilian garb; find themselves only what they were before, humble units in the civilian class, unhonored and unsung. * * *

When they left they were told they would have their old jobs back if they returned. Their employers told them that. The editors told them that. The patriotic lecturers told them that. But neither the employers, the editors, nor the lecturers control industry; industry is a thing of supply and demand, of private profit. The wheels of industry would not run with missing cogs, nor will the wheels mesh with extra cogs. So the cogs were inserted in their place when they went to war, and there is no room for new ones today.

We are not blaming any individual. The question is too big for individual solution. It is a question for all the people through their governments. In that way it would be simple of solution. (Wheeling, W. Va., Majority, Jan. 23, 1919.)

One slogan which appeared in several labor papers and was quoted also in the metropolitan press was "A job for every service star."[3] Employers were reminded that they had made much of the patriotism of employees who had entered the service. An appeal was made that the employers should put back to work an ex-serviceman for every star in their service flags. If former employees failed to return, or did not wish their old jobs back, other returned soldiers should be given their places.

The American Federation of Labor, through syndicated articles in the labor journals, took the attitude that organized labor had a responsibility toward servicemen, and should not turn discharged soldiers and sailors out to struggle for jobs, or to starve if they failed to find employment. It proposed that the monthly salary previously paid should be continued by the War and Navy Departments for a period not to exceed 12 months, if employment were not obtained

[3] Journal of Labor (Atlanta, Ga.), March 21 and 28, 1919.

within that period.[4] The San Francisco Labor Council endorsed the proposition that discharged soldiers and sailors be given 6 months' pay, because the men had served too short a time to make any savings, and were ill-prepared to fit themselves for reentry into civil life.[5]

Various bills were introduced in the Congress of the United States and in State legislatures, providing for bonuses to servicemen either in the form of a lump sum or in monthly payments for a stated length of time. In Congress, the Baer-Gronna Bill provided for a payment of a cash bonus of $300 to every discharged serviceman. In the Minnesota State Senate a bill was introduced to pay servicemen from that State $25 for every month of service; similar legislation was presented in North Dakota.[6] The Lamping Soldiers' Relief Bill, in the Washington State Legislature, provided for a cash settlement for each soldier.

An official of the American Federation of Labor voiced a fear of bread lines for soldiers by May first. This speech was widely quoted in the labor journals as well as in some of the daily newspapers, and was discussed from various angles in numerous editorials. The following is an example of the labor viewpoint:

> Frank Morrison, Secretary of the American Federation of Labor, tells Congress "that there will be bread lines in every industrial center by May 1st, after the men are out of the Army."
>
> Not a pleasant prediction. It won't come true if there is any wisdom in the lawmakers of the Nation. And it will not come true if there is wisdom distributed among the great wealth owners and industrial rulers of the Nation. For the latter have the power, if they choose, through their influence on government, to give work to the men that are coming out of the Army and Navy. They will run very serious risks with their own prosperity, their own peace of mind and future governing powers if they allow those bread lines to form.
>
> A bread line for soldiers, with crippled men scattered here and there in the line would not look well or end well. Better free men from the Army and Navy now, give them their $30 per month for 6 months at least and keep it up longer if necessary while they try to find work. (Boston Labor World, Mar. 22, 1919.)

THE SEARCH FOR JOBS

Attitude of ex-servicemen.—The general restlessness of the returned soldiers and sailors made it difficult for many of them to settle down to the humdrum life of their former jobs. Either because their former wages seemed too low or because of the specialized training that they had obtained during the war, many returning servicemen felt that they were qualified for better positions than they had held before entering the service. The Boston Bureau for Returning Soldiers and Sailors, in discussing this aspect of the situation, expressed the opinion that in many cases the soldiers' feeling was justified.[7]

A metropolitan daily on the Pacific Coast, discussing the attitude of the soldier toward obtaining a job, and the fact that often he did not know how to do what he thought he wanted to do, pointed out that the soldier should not always be blamed for this. "The man who was a bank messenger before the war at $90 a month, who became a captain and displayed ability as a leader and organizer, is not going to be a bank messenger again. Bank running may be the only civilian occupation he knows. But this is no reason why he should go back to it. He deserves a higher place and help in finding it."[8]

[4] Wheeling, W. Va., Majority, February 20, 1919.
[5] Labor Clarion (San Francisco, Calif.), January 17, 1919.
[6] Minneapolis Labor Review, March 14, 1919.
[7] Boston Evening Transcript, January 6, 1919.
[8] Seattle Post-Intelligencer, February 12, 1919.

The general director of employment of New York State reported that it was much more difficult to place soldiers than civilians, because they were so particular about the positions that they would accept. Employment had been found for only 36 percent of the discharged fighting men applying for work, as compared with 56 percent of the male civilian applicants.[9] The editor of a New England daily, however, deplored the fact that many of the returning servicemen would not accept positions for which they were qualified and at which they were working prior to their service, but wished something better than they had held previously and preferred to wait rather than go back to their old jobs.[10]

The regional director of a large railroad system in another eastern city reported a similar attitude on the part of the men who had left the employ of the carrier, to take service in the armed forces. The men were expecting better jobs upon their return, and in many cases were refusing their old places.[11]

A special survey of 703 service men passing through New York City on April 17 was conducted by Col. Arthur Woods, Assistant to the Secretary of War, which revealed the following facts:

> Out of 703 men taken at random and interviewed in New York during the week April 6 to 11, inclusive, 162 men were passing through the city on their way home; 107 were on passes from nearby camps; 74 stated that they had obtained their former positions, and 27 stated that they could get their former positions but they wanted better jobs and bigger salaries; 41 men had obtained new positions; 97 had been unsuccessful in obtaining employment of any kind; 37 men stated they had made no effort to secure work; 54 had positions but were taking a short vacation before going to work; 31 were taking vacations before looking for work; 14 said they were not working because the salaries offered were too low; 6 said they intended to re-enlist of which 4 were re-enlisting because they could not secure employment. Five men said they could not obtain their old positions, 34 could obtain positions but wanted something better; 6 were peddling on the street, because as they claimed, they could not secure other employment and 2 said they could obtain their former positions but with pay lower than that which they received before entering the war. (Journal of Commerce, New York, Apr. 17, 1919.)

Attitude of employers.—Some employers sympathized with the dissatisfaction of the servicemen upon finding their former associates promoted to higher positions, whereas they were returning to jobs at their old level. Other employers felt that the situation was to some extent inevitable and little could be done about it. One newspaper, describing the employment situation on a certain railroad, commented as follows: "While their dissatisfaction is natural enough, the railroad can offer no relief. Those who were left behind have had the opportunity to learn more of the business and have made themselves more valuable in that particular line. The greater value to the country of the fighting men's service is acknowledged, but what is to be done about it? It is the soldier's fate to take much of this compensation in glory and the consciousness of having done his high duty. It isn't comforting, but it was ever thus." The entire statement of the railroad and this comment of the newspaper, were reprinted in a labor paper, with the caption: "And They Went Through Hell for This."[11]

A letter from a newspaper man in St. Louis described the experiences of several ex-servicemen in trying to obtain their former positions.

[9] Christian Science Monitor (Boston), March 6, 1919.
[10] Boston Evening Transcript, January 4, 1919.
[11] Quotation from Philadelphia Record, carried in Labor Leader (Bridgeport, Conn.), February 20, 1919.

One of them, a wounded soldier, was given back his old job—formerly paying 40 cents an hour—with an electric company. He did not ask about the rate of pay, assuming it to be the same as before the war. After 2 days on the job, he discovered that the work was being paid for at 27½ cents an hour, so he quit, remarking that "it was a hell of a country he had been fighting for."[12]

Another ex-soldier, still in uniform, testified in a midwestern city at hearings before the National War Labor Board that he had been offered a job in the flour mills at 20 cents an hour.[13]

One labor paper pointed out that it was not enough to re-employ servicemen at their old wage levels; the rates should be increased because of the increase in the cost of living. "Jobs for heroes?" this editorial began. "That's good so far as it goes, but look out for the employer who wants workers at reduced wages True, he will say, I want him at his old wages." However, the article noted many soldiers agreed to their "old wages," without realizing that, because of the increased cost of living, they would receive in real wages only about one-half of the pay they had been receiving 2 years before.

> Few returning men know that the purchasing power of the dollar has been reduced by about one-half in the past few years. When he buys his civilian clothes he will get the first jolt, but full realization will not come until he settles down to the old grind. (Boston Labor World, May 24, 1919.)

One type of employer was represented by a Chicago department-store head who claimed that soldiers were too slow and demanded too much money. In an interview with a soldier who had formerly been employed by him, this manager said he had hired about 50 boys from the Army and Navy but, after about a week, was obliged to discharge 40 of them, and the remainder a few days later. He then gave instructions to his superintendent not to hire anyone in uniform.[12]

A far western paper took the attitude that—

> The soldier should have his old job back even if he is for the time being a burden to his employer. In any event he cannot be an unsupportable burden, and at the worst he will be superfluous but for a short time. In every establishment there is sufficient shifting around to shake down the soldier into his old job, and if there isn't, his salary will not bring the business to bankruptcy. If there is danger of that, the business is hopeless. (Seattle Post-Intelligencer, Jan. 20, 1919.)

Employment situation in less critical areas.—In certain sections of the country, the employment situation was much less serious, and the returning servicemen were afforded employment without difficulty. In West Virginia, for example, the newspaper accounts indicate that about 600 discharged soldiers applied for positions between the time of the Armistice and the end of January 1919, and practically all were placed.[14] The director of the Federal Employment Service sent out a questionnaire to former employers of servicemen, asking if their old jobs were available upon their return from overseas. Several hundred replies were received, and in every case the answer was "yes." One former employer said, "Position held open at an increase in salary."[15] A large railroad in the same State issued a statement to the effect that not only were returning soldiers being given their former positions, but the company was trying to get its men released from the service in order to replace them in the positions they held before they went to war.[15]

[12] New Majority (Chicago, Ill.), February 22, 1919.
[13] Minneapolis Labor Review, January 3, 1919.
[14] Wheeling (W. Va.) Majority, January 30, 1919.
[15] Idem, February 13, 1919.

In the agricultural South, also, where there were few large industrial centers and a shortage of labor, the returning members of the armed forces were quite readily absorbed. The tone and attitude of the local papers reflect this difference.

A cartoon, captioned "The Unemployment Problem," in a Texas paper, May 4, 1919, contrasted the prevailing labor surplus throughout the country with the situation in the South. There were two pictures, one above the other. In the first, a man in black, labeled "alarmist," was dragging a citizen by the hand and saying, "The demobilization is causing a terrible situation. Come with me and I'll show you crowds of jobless men in front of employment offices." The second picture showed an employment agency deserted, although the doors were covered with "labor wanted" ads for various types of jobs. The "alarmist" was much taken aback, while the citizen said, smiling, "This is indeed a terrible situation, but the shoe seems to be on the other foot."[16]

With the approach of spring, the shortage of farm labor became acute in all the agricultural States. The Federal Employment Service predicted even more serious conditions during the summer months, when workers would be needed for harvest. This shortage, it explained, was due largely to the fact that "many soldiers and sailors who formerly were farmers and farm laborers prefer to remain in cities, where hours of work are shorter and the pay is greater."

A southern newspaper, presenting this report, commented that "Even the farm laborer or farm renter who prefers life in the country to life in the city cannot * * * be expected to work 12 hours in the country at $2 a day when he can make $4 a day in the city by working only 8 hours." It pointed out that the result of this cityward shift was, first, to increase the cost of producing foodstuffs and, second, to decrease wages by lessening the purchasing power of the workers in the cities, so that in the end the city workers were left with their shorter day but without their increase in wages.[17]

EX-SERVICEMEN AND LABOR DISTURBANCES

Under the conditions of labor unrest prevalent in many industrial areas of the country early in 1919, it was natural that ex-servicemen should become involved in labor disputes of various kinds. News items from different parts of the country describing these events appeared in the daily papers and were commented upon by the labor journals editorially.

In Worcester, Mass., 800 striking molders charged that the foundry owners were scouring New England to hire returned soldiers as strikebreakers.[18] Charging that the Red Cross, through its employment service, was being used to help the employers, the strikers engaged an attorney to enter a protest with the Federal authorities. Subsequently, the Red Cross employment bureau admitted that at least two foundries had requested ex-servicemen for jobs, but in neither case had the existence of a strike been mentioned. Apparently, therefore, the soldiers had become involved inadvertently, since neither they nor the Red Cross were aware of the strikes.

[16] Dallas (Tex.) Morning News, May 4, 1919.
[17] Idem, May 10, 1919.
[18] Boston Labor World, May 4, 1919.

A somewhat different type of incident occurred in Long Island City, N. Y., where it was reported that shoe factories in the district had replaced alien strikers with nearly a thousand discharged American soldiers. It was said that they were doing the work fully as well as had the former employees and that, in the future, preference would be given to United States citizens.[19]

Along the West Coast where the industrial situation was critical, and where serious labor troubles culminated in a general strike early in 1919, numerous instances were reported of ex-servicemen who became involved in disturbances of various kinds.

In Seattle, according to the Auto Drivers' Union, two former members of the union, recently discharged from the Army, applied for reinstatement in their old jobs as taxi drivers. The union charged that they were refused employment unless they tore up their union cards. One of the men had been in the employ of the company for 5 years before he left to join the colors. Although the taxicab company had promised that the men's old jobs would be ready for them when they returned, it gave the places to two other ex-servicemen, both of them nonunion. The Auto Drivers' Union, thereupon, called a strike, and the local labor paper printed a news account under the following heading:

Ex-Soldiers Break Strike on Taxicabs

Ex-servicemen, some of them with chevrons on their arms indicating they have seen service overseas, are acting as strikebreakers on the taxicabs of the Seattle Taxi Cab & Transfer Co. (Seattle Union Record, Mar. 15, 1919.)

In the same city it had earlier been reported that returned soldiers and sailors helped the police, one Sunday afternoon, to break up an open-air meeting of Bolshevik sympathizers, at which the red flag was cheered and IWW "hymns" were sung. An impromptu parade was formed, which ended in a riot during which police sticks were used freely.[20]

In Tacoma, Wash., the headquarters of the Soldiers and Sailors Council was raided by the police as a result of alleged defiance of an order by city officials, forbidding the organization to sell tags on the streets for the benefit of the returned soldiers. Twelve men were arrested charged with inciting a riot, and 51 were detained on a charge of peddling without a license. Parades were held in the business streets, with cries of "Come and join the Bolsheviks," although some marchers carried American flags. Apparently there was no organized leadership, and of the participants not more than a dozen were soldiers.[21]

In Chicago, an employment bureau connected with the Metal Trades Association inserted advertisements in the papers, asking returned soldiers and sailors to register for jobs. Ex-soldiers who responded to the appeal were sent out to a certain company manufacturing motor supplies, to replace the machinists and other workers who had gone on strike. According to one news account, before being sent, the servicemen were warned to "look out for yourselves;" and one of them who asked for an explanation of this was told:

There is a strike out there, and the strikers will ask you not to take the job. Tell them to go to hell, that you are looking out for yourself. Tell them that they got high pay during the war while you were at the front, and that you are going to get yours now. (New Majority, Mar. 29, 1919.)

[19] New York Commercial, May 1, 1919, quoted in Federal Employment Service, Weekly Reports on Labor Conditions, issue of May 9, 1919.
[20] Seattle Post-Intelligencer, January 13, 1919.
[21] Christian Science Monitor (Boston), April 9, 1919.

Actually, the soldiers found that they were given lower pay than the strikers had received during the war, and a longer working day. One man wrote a letter, published in a local newspaper, stating that he was an ex-soldier, a machinist by trade, and that he saw the advertisement of the Metal Trades Employment Bureau. As he was a union man, when he found that a strike was going on, he went around to the hall where the strikers were congregated. According to his version of the affair, the men were out on strike to enforce the principle of an 8-hour day. As this ex-serviceman put it: "These 1,100 workers had refused to work 9 hours, thereby taking 1,100 hours a day from returning soldiers and sailors who are looking for work, and who might be employed for these 1,100 hours a day."

Another news item about discharged soldiers in the Chicago area stated that millionaires of Lake Forest were using disabled soldiers to break a strike of their gardeners who had asked for more pay.[22]

EFFECT OF NEW EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN ON JOBS FOR EX-SERVICEMEN

The influx of women into expanding war industries, and into jobs previously held by men who had gone into the armed services, had various results after the war. The following isolated examples indicate the situations that arose.

The most serious result of the women's employment appeared to be the lowering of the salary levels for work usually performed by men. One lieutenant, still in uniform bearing two gold service stripes, went to see his old employer in St. Louis, seeking work. Before the war, this young man had been doing very well and his prospects were bright, so he was told that his application would be given attention. Later he learned that he could have his old job back, but at the lower wages of the woman who had taken his position.[23]

A representative of the Women's Christian Temperance Union, commissioned to represent that organization at the Peace Conference, issued an appeal to women all over the country, who held positions formerly filled by men, to give them up to returning soldiers. She declared that it was the patriotic duty of every woman to do this, unless her position was "essential to earning her own living."[24]

In Seattle, the superintendent of the Women's Division of the U. S. Employment Service declared that married women whose husbands were able to support them should be weeded out of industry to make room for returning soldiers.

* * * These women are keeping a great many girls from positions and are also helping to lower the standard of wages. They not only hurt the women's side of it, but the men's as well, because some employers, when they can get a married woman's services for less than that of a girl or man, often keep her on the job. (Seattle Post-Intelligencer, Feb. 18, 1918.)

On the other hand, the director of the Federal Employment Service in New York City stated that he was not in favor of turning women out of their positions in order to make room for returning men.

* * * The Service does not take sides in the matter, but urges employers to go as far as they possibly can to make room for the soldiers without discharging the women who filled their places when they left. We feel that the employers ought to be willing to undergo some inconvenience and expense to take on their former men * * * Turning the women out will only make matters worse.

[22] New Majority (Chicago, Ill.), April 19, 1919.
[23] Letter quoted in editorial in New Majority (Chicago, Ill.), February 22, 1919.
[24] Mrs. Ella A. Boole, quoted in Atlanta Constitution, January 3, 1919.

> Few of the returning soldiers are seeking the places the women have filled in their absence, and that only in rare cases where employers were refusing to take back their former men because the services of the women were satisfactory. (Christian Science Monitor, Boston, Mar. 8, 1919.)

In March 1919 the Community Labor Bureau in Hartford, Conn., estimated that over 2,000 women employed by local manufacturing plants had been released since the war, being replaced to a great extent by soldiers and sailors.[25]

It was reported that in Idaho the Oregon Short Line Railroad was retaining the girls who had been employed in the shops, but that no soldier who was in the employ of the railroad at the time of his enlistment would be denied a position with the railroad upon his return.[26]

The secretary of the Soldiers' and Sailors' Council in Seattle reported that many men were offered jobs by the big local companies, but at greatly reduced wages, and were sometimes even asked to "scab" [27] on women. However, he said, they resolutely refused to take the positions of any girls at reduced rates, or to do anything that would interfere with a strike.[28]

PEDDLING BY EX-SOLDIERS

One of the more unfortunate results of the concentration of ex-servicemen in urban centers where employment opportunities were limited, was the begging on street corners and peddling of little "welcome home" pennants from door to door, often by men in uniform, with overseas, service, and wound stripes. One news article in a labor journal commenting on this as "as about the most shameful sight in American cities today," continued:

> In New York this is but one species of begging to which impoverished heroes have been compelled to resort. Selling newspapers on the street corners, peddling from push-carts and shoulder-slung trays is a common sight.
>
> The city of New York stages a welcoming spectacle costing several thousands of dollars—and generously instructs the police to refrain from arresting wounded soldiers for peddling shoestrings without securing licenses.
>
> The remedy? There are many. Employment will do it. Constructive employment, lasting and valuable to the community, is the only thing worthwhile. The greatest of these is the farms for soldiers, proposed by the Department of the Interior. (Buffalo Labor Journal, quoted in Boston Labor World, May 3, 1919.)

The U. S. Department of Labor investigated the matter, and reported that these discharged soldiers and sailors were not forced to sell banners and other small merchandise in order to earn a living, but did so because they made more money than they could obtain in their former employment. One man remarked to an investigator, "Why should I work? I made $50 yesterday selling 'welcome home' buttons." A newspaper commented: "The uniform gains the man a ready audience, and some have been known to wear counterfeit foreign decorations and stripes for fictitious wounds to arouse sympathy."[29]

An editorial in the August 15, 1919, issue of the American Legion Weekly, headed "Peddlers in Uniform," warned the public: "Do not buy from them in the belief that you are showing an appreciation of men who were in service. Rather, you are helping to support an abuse that is resented by servicemen generally."

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[25] Connecticut Labor Press (New Haven, Conn.), March 29, 1919.
[26] Christian Science Monitor (Boston), March 15, 1919.
[27] I. e., act as strikebreakers.
[28] Report of U. S. Employment Service in Christian Science Monitor (Boston), March 15, 1919.
[29] Christian Science Monitor (Boston), May 6, 1919.

The Government tried to stop the misuse of the uniform, and urged the public to use discretion in buying from discharged soldiers. In April, Col. Arthur Woods, Chairman of the Emergency Employment Committee for Soldiers and Sailors of the Council of National Defense, requested a list of all discharged soldiers and sailors who had applied for licenses to peddle. He stated in part:

> The growing number of peddlers among discharged men in uniform has become very noticeable in many of the larger cities. It is my belief that, in many instances, that is due to the fact that the discharged soldier or sailor has not been able to secure suitable employment immediately, and has turned to peddling as the quickest and easiest way to become immediately self-supporting. The sight of a man in uniform peddling on the streets is extremely undesirable, and suggests to the public that he has been neglected * * *.
>
> It is my purpose to get in touch with every discharged soldier and sailor who has taken out a peddler's license, and see that he has the opportunity to engage in some form of more suitable work. This, of course, will determine at once whether the discharged man has taken up peddling from choice or from necessity. (United States Bulletin (R. W. Babson, Washington, D. C.), Apr. 10, 1919, p. 17.)

Land-Settlement Plans for Soldiers

The various plans for placing ex-servicemen on land of their own, that engaged the attention of public officials early in 1919, were widely discussed on editorial pages throughout the country. The Secretary of the Interior, Franklin K. Lane, proposed that several hundred million dollars should be used for the reclamation of waste lands and the establishment of farms in community groups. Ex-soldiers and -sailors would be permitted to purchase the farms under contract, the payments to be distributed over a period of 30 years.

The Secretary of Labor, William B. Wilson, advanced a somewhat different plan, in which the farms established on reclaimed lands would be leased for life to the settlers on easy terms, and would be open to civilians as well as ex-servicemen. His scheme was designed to prevent the sale of such property for speculative profits, since the men would not be able to obtain title to it.

In New Orleans, an engineer of the U. S. Reclamation Service reported that landowners were menacing the success of such plans by demanding prices ranging from four to six times the assessed value of the land. Apparently some owners were also demanding that the amount of the excess profits tax be passed on to the ex-servicemen.[30]

In speaking of similar land-settlement plans incorporated in the Mondell and Smoot Bills in the two houses of Congress, which offered similar plans, a West Virginia paper remarked, "They are very truly opposed to any governmental connection with the settler, once he had been given his land." However, the paper went on to comment that the Soldiers, Sailors, and Marines National Weekly News was not favorably impressed with either the Mondell or Lane plans, but had declared that the doughboy would be the best judge of his own needs after he obtained the cash bonus of $300 proposed by the Baer-Gronna Bill, and that it would be foolish to offer farms to men who knew and cared nothing about farming.[31]

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[30] Christian Science Monitor (Boston), January 3, 1919, p. 7.
[31] Wheeling (W. Va.), Majority, June 12, 1919.

The Church and the Ex-Servicemen

The churches throughout the country were active in giving assistance to the returned servicemen as well as to civilian war workers released from the munitions industries. In March 1919, the General Wartime Commission of the Churches, representing more than 20 million church members, announced that it had undertaken the organization of the 150,000 churches of the 35 religious bodies included on the Commission, for the purpose of obtaining jobs for returning servicemen and war workers, in cooperation with the U. S. Employment Service.[32] Members of the churches were canvassed for vacancies, and the jobs were to be classified according to the occupations of the men. Sunday, May 4, was designated as "Employment Sunday" to launch the campaign.[33]

There has been a great deal of discussion regarding the attitude of the men who served overseas in World War I, toward the more serious aspects of life and more especially toward the church. Little additional material was uncovered in the present analysis. In view of the importance of the subject, however, it seems pertinent to note here, even though it merely touches upon the problems involved, one editorial, entitled "In the School of War." It pointed out that some millions of fighting men were returning with practical experience that years of routine, everyday life would not have given them, and with concrete ideas of what they wanted. "They have gone to a school of experience that does not glimpse theories, but sees naked facts; they have been face to face with these facts and found the way to grasp them and deal with them to their best interests. We may expect to see the results of this experience reflected in the home life of the men who have so well served their country." Regarding the attitude of returned servicemen toward religion, this article stated:

> Various chaplains who have served at the front of war are suggesting that Army and Navy life have given a new trend to the serviceman's theories about the churches. A chaplain writes, "I am certain that the war service has given the soldier a new view of the churches, and that one thing that repels him is our negative attitude toward life." The soldier criticized the churches for their "anti"-attitude, anti-dance, anti-theater, anti-cards, drinks or smokes, and missed the positive self-devotion, cheer, loyalty, courage, that he learned in the Army. Another soldier thought religion is selfish in that it merely threatened hell to sinners and promised heaven to the good.
>
> So, it is concluded by Army and Navy chaplains, the soldier wants a militant, courageous, forward-looking church that comes into intimate touch with humanity and its problems, certainly an abrupt change from the conventional, devotional, self-contained, and conservative ideas that have dominated so many of the great church bodies. (Seattle Post-Intelligencer, Feb. 2, 1919.)

[32] New York Times, March 23, 1919.
[33] Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin (New York), April 21, 1919.

Ordnance Workers in 1918 and 1943[1]

Summary

EXTENSIVE changes in the organization and policy of ordnance plants have evolved since 1918, but many wartime production problems of that period persist today. The great majority (87 percent) of workers in the ordnance plants surveyed during the first World War were men. Today women constitute nearly a third of the wage earners engaged in the manufacture of ordnance. Employees—both men and women—worked longer hours, the average workweek being 55 hours in 1918, compared to 47 hours in 1943. Average weekly wages in 1918 were about $25.00, but the average pay of women was approximately only half that of men. In 1943, the level of money wages in ordnance plants is considerably higher than it was in World War I, and women are being more nearly paid "equal pay for equal work" than in the last war. The majority of the workers were then employed in plants having a 2-shift arrangement, and a 10-hour shift was usual. Ordnance plants today typically work 8 hours per shift and 3 shifts per day. Nearly all of the 1918 plants operated on the "open-shop" plan, and organized collective bargaining was on a much smaller scale than it is at present. Excessive labor turnover and inadequate housing were major problems for many plants in 1918 just as they are in 1943.

The present article brings together the available data on the labor conditions in ordnance plants in 1918 and in 1943.[2] The 1918 data here shown are based upon a War Department survey, Industrial Conditions in Ordnance Plants, made in that year; the 1943 information was obtained from various indicated sources.

Employment of Women

Of the 300 plants covered in the War Department survey of 1918, the number of employees was reported by 271; they were in 20 States and employed 482,761 persons (table 1).[3] Women numbered 58,027, or approximately 13 percent of the 442,511 workers in plants reporting on female employment.[4]

In the present war women are being used in ordnance work to a much greater extent than was the case in 1918. This may be attributed in some measure to the long-term upward trend in the participation of women in the labor market, and possibly also to changes in the character of the industry. As may be seen in the following tabulation, based upon a War Production Board survey for August 1943,[5] women

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[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Occupational Outlook Division, by Lester M. Pearlman, with the cooperation of the Division of Historical Studies.

[2] In comparing the ordnance industries of 1918 and 1943, it should be borne in mind that there have been extensive changes in the type of product, that there are now many products which were unknown in the last war, and that the relative weights of the different kinds of output probably have changed. Furthermore, while basically the data for the two periods cover the same types of manufacture, there may be differences of coverage and definition which prevent a comparison in more than general terms.

[3] The great majority (206) of these plants were in four Northeastern States (Pennsylvania, New York, Massachusetts, and Connecticut) and two Midwestern States (Michigan and Ohio); they employed four-fifths of the total number of workers reported. Pennsylvania had the largest concentration of plants and employees, its 57 plants employing one-fifth of the total number of workers reported.

[4] Nearly three-fourths of the women workers were in plants in Massachusetts, Connecticut, or New Jersey. Women comprised 27 percent of the total working force in these States, but only 6 percent in the other 17 States.

[5] Tabulation (Operations of Metal Products Industries, August 1943) by War Production Board from Monthly WPB-732 reports.

constituted about one-third of all wage earners engaged in the manufacture of ordnance in that month, the percentage of employment varying widely among the different ordnance industries.

	Women as percent of total workers
Ordnance, total	32.0
Guns and mounts, 20 mm. and above	14.7
Guns and mounts, below 20 mm	36.1
Ordnance, not elsewhere classified	11.3
Artillery ammunition	39.4
Small-arms ammunition	46.6
Bombs, depth charges, mines, and torpedoes	27.7
Ammunition loading and assembly	44.4
Ammunition, not elsewhere classified	43.1
Combat tanks and parts (except engines)	15.3
Combat-tank engines	17.7
Metal ammunition boxes	34.9
Fire-control instruments	38.7

In factories manufacturing small-arms ammunition, for example, nearly half of the wage earners in August 1943 were women, whereas in plants making combat tanks and parts, women constitute only 15 percent of the wage earners. It is possible, although there is no available information on this point, that plants making heavy ordnance —big guns, tanks, etc.—which characteristically employ relatively few women, accounted for a relatively large part of the ordnance workers covered in the 1918 survey.

TABLE 1.—*Distribution of Ordnance Employees, by State and Sex, 1918* [1]

State	Number of plants reporting employment [2]	Number of workers			Percentage distribution			Females as percent of total [3]
		Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	
All States	271	482,761	384,484	58,027	100.0	100.0	100.0	13.1
Pennsylvania	57	100,949	96,702	4,247	21.0	25.1	7.4	4.2
Michigan	15	[4] 88,050	46,548	1,502	18.3	12.1	2.6	3.1
Connecticut	34	82,956	63,280	19,676	17.2	16.5	33.8	23.7
Massachusetts	29	51,833	35,918	15,915	10.7	9.3	27.4	30.7
Ohio	36	[5] 48,523	46,025	2,398	10.1	12.0	4.1	5.0
New York	36	32,980	30,864	2,116	6.8	8.0	3.6	6.4
New Jersey	14	19,994	13,574	6,420	4.1	3.5	11.1	32.1
Wisconsin	10	13,204	12,279	925	2.7	3.2	1.6	7.0
Rhode Island	6	10,620	8,326	2,294	2.2	2.2	4.0	21.6
Maryland	12	8,841	7,183	1,658	1.8	1.9	2.9	18.8
Indiana	3	[6] 7,500	7,350	0	1.6	1.9	.0	.0
Illinois	8	7,313	6,479	834	1.5	1.7	1.4	11.4
Washington, D. C	1	3,000	3,000	0	.6	.8	.0	.0
Tennessee	3	2,800	2,800	0	.6	.7	.0	.0
Georgia	2	1,400	1,400	0	.3	.4	.0	.0
Missouri	1	1,500	1,500	0	.3	.4	.0	.0
New Hampshire	1	650	643	7	.1	.2	(7)	1.1
Vermont	1	483	448	35	.1	.1	.1	7.2
North Carolina	1	75	75	0	(7)	.0	.0	.0
Minnesota	1	90	90	0	(7)	.0	.0	.0

[1] Data are from U. S. War Department Survey, Industrial Conditions in Ordnance Plants, 1918.
[2] 29 plants in the survey did not report employment by sex.
[3] Computed on basis of plants reporting employment by sex.
[4] Male plus female does not equal total, since 1 plant with 40,000 employees did not report on sex.
[5] Male plus female does not equal total, since 1 plant with 100 employees did not report on sex.
[6] Male plus female does not equal total, since 1 plant with 150 employees did not report on sex.
[7] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Hours of Work

The average workweek in the ordnance plants reporting in 1918 was 55 hours.[6] Among individual plants, average hours ranged from 40 to 72 per week, but only 1.1 percent of the employees worked in plants averaging less than 48 hours per week, while 29.3 percent worked in plants averaging over 60 hours (table 2). The largest number of employees, 36.4 percent, was in plants averaging 54 or 55 hours per week.

Male employees worked 4 hours per week longer on the average than female employees—men averaging 56 hours per week, women 52 hours. About one-third of the men, as compared with only 1.5 percent of the women, were on the job 60 hours or more per week. On the other hand, 41.0 percent of the women and only 11.3 percent of the men worked 48 hours or less per week.

TABLE 2.—*Distribution of Ordnance Employees, by Sex and Plant Average Weekly Hours, 1918* [1]

Average weekly hours	Number working classified weekly hours			Percentage distribution		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
Total [2]	317,503	276,142	41,361	100.0	100.0	100.0
40–47 hours	3,495	3,150	345	1.1	1.1	.8
48 hours	44,644	28,036	16,608	14.1	10.2	40.2
49–53 hours	30,287	27,382	2,905	9.5	9.9	7.0
54–55 hours	115,430	97,425	18,005	36.4	35.3	43.6
56–59 hours	30,617	27,749	2,868	9.6	10.0	6.9
60 hours and over	93,030	92,400	630	29.3	33.5	1.5

[1] Data are from U. S. War Department survey, Industrial Conditions in Ordnance Plants, 1918.
[2] Excludes 165,258 employees in plants not reporting hours and/or sex.

Ordnance factory wage earners worked considerably shorter hours in 1943 than in 1918. The War Production Board estimated that in August 1943 the average wage earner in ordnance worked a 47-hour week.

Before the first World War, long hours were the rule. Factory wage earners on the average worked an "actual week" of 51.5 hours in 1914, according to a National Industrial Conference Board survey.[7] The movement for shorter hours started in the twenties and advanced rapidly during the depression of the thirties as a method of sharing the available work. Consequently the longer hours worked in ordnance plants during the last war may not represent a greater increase relative to the peacetime average weekly hours, since peacetime hours prior to World War I were longer than before the present war.

Average Weekly Wages

Ordnance plants in 1918 reported an average wage of $24.80 per week. The average wage of $26.30 for men was nearly double the average of $13.98 for women. Considerably more than half (58.5 percent) of the women worked in plants where they averaged less than $15.00 per week, and almost nine-tenths (89 percent) in plants

[6] Average hours were computed as an arithmetic mean; all other averages given in later sections are median averages.
[7] Wages, Hours, and Employment in American Manufacturing Industries, July 1914–January 1924. (National Industrial Conference Board, Research Report No. 68, New York, 1924, p. 21.)

where the average was less than $20.00 per week. Over half (53 percent) of the men were in plants where they averaged $25.00 or over per week, and only one-fifth in plants where the average was less than $20.00 per week (table 3).

These average weekly wages obscure the wide range of individual earnings within the plants because a plant's average wage was assigned to all its employees. The highest average weekly wage reported by any plant was $46.00 for men and $25.00 for women. The lowest average weekly wage paid to men was $11 and to women, $8.00.

The fact that women worked 4 hours less per week, on the average, than did men partially accounts for the wage disparity between the sexes. However, the female wages, if adjusted to the average 56-hour week worked by males, would still show an average differential of $11.25 per week.

TABLE 3.—*Distribution of Ordnance Employees by Sex and Plant Average Weekly Wages, 1918* [1]

Average weekly wages	Number in specified wage group			Percentage distribution		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total [2]	355,835	326,230	29,605	100.0	100.0	100.0
$8.00–$14.99	20,803	3,487	17,316	5.8	1.1	58.5
$15.00–$19.99	71,082	62,048	9,034	20.0	19.0	30.5
$20.00–$24.99	89,551	86,696	2,855	25.2	26.6	9.6
$25.00–$29.99	99,950	99,550	400	28.1	30.5	1.4
$30.00 and over	74,449	74,449	0	20.9	22.8	0

[1] Data are from U. S. War Department survey, Industrial Conditions in Ordnance Plants, 1918.
[2] Excludes 126,926 employees in plants not reporting wages and/or sex.

Money wages in 1943 were considerably higher than in 1918 but a comparison of real wages in the two periods would require a consideration of the price level, hours, supply of consumers' goods, and other factors. Although no actual figure is available at this time on current average wages for the ordnance group, wages for the several industries now manufacturing ordnance products average between $45 and $55 per week.

A sample survey of war industries in 1943, including small-arms and artillery ammunition and cannon and small-arms manufacture, indicates that in four-fifths of the plants there are no wage differentials between men and women working at identical jobs and that four-fifths of the plants start inexperienced men and women at the same rate.[8] Moreover, training programs and upgrading of women to higher-paying jobs have been reducing the wage margin between the sexes. It appears that in this war women not only are receiving more nearly "equal pay for equal work," but also are working at relatively higher-paying jobs than they did in the first World War.

Shift Arrangements

The typical ordnance plant in 1918 operated on a 2-shift arrangement and a 10-hour shift.

More than half (56 percent) of the workers in ordnance plants in 1918 were employed in plants reporting two shifts. The rest were

[8] See Woman Workers in Two Wars, in Monthly Labor Review, October 1943.

about evenly divided between plants operating one or three shifts. The following tabulation shows the number of employees in ordnance plants reporting shift arrangements, classified by the type of shift arrangement.

	Number of plants reporting on employment	*Employees*	
		Number	*Percent*
Total	172	262, 734	100. 0
1-shift operation	57	60, 697	23. 1
2-shift operation	80	147, 555	56. 2
3-shift operation	35	54, 482	20. 7

Nearly half of the employees for whom data are available worked in plants reporting a 10-hour shift, while one-third worked an 8-hour shift. There were only 2 plants (employing 5,000 persons) in which the entire plant worked more than 10 hours per shift, but there were 65 plants (with 142,000 employees) in which a part of the plant did so.[9] The following tabulation shows the employees classified by number of hours per shift.

	Number of plants reporting on employment	*Employees*	
		Number	*Percent*
Total	110	149, 881	100. 0
8-hour shift	41	46, 876	31. 3
9-hour shift	25	27, 616	18. 4
10-hour shift	42	70, 014	46. 7
12-hour shift	1	5, 250	3. 5
15-hour shift	1	125	. 1

Employees in ordnance plants in 1943 were typically working an 8-hour shift, but a 3-shift arrangement was found in the majority of plants. Although 3-shift operation has helped to offset the shorter hours worked in the present war, data are not available to determine whether the extent of plant utilization is any greater than in the last war. Information obtained by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, for July 1943,[10] showed that the number of employees on the second shift in that month constituted only 45 percent of the number on the first shift, while the number on the third shift was only 22 percent of the first shift. The number of employees on each shift, and consequently the extent of plant utilization, is not available for 1918.

In July 1943 about three-fifths of the ordnance plants, employing four-fifths of the workers, were on a 3-shift arrangement, the larger plants tending to work 3 shifts. About 16 percent of the employees worked in plants having a 2-shift arrangement, and the remainder, 3 percent, were in single-shift plants.

Early in 1943 a Department of Labor sample survey of five important war industries, three of which were in the ordnance group, showed half of the plants reporting an 8-hour first shift, and about a third reporting somewhat less than 8 hours. The remaining sixth of the plants worked shifts of 9, 10, 11, or 12 hours. In most cases hours on the second and third shifts were the same as on the first.[11]

[9] In all, there were 84 plants employing 178,129 persons which reported a varying number of hours per shift. These plants are not included in the above tabulation.

[10] From Bureau of Labor Statistics monthly reports on absenteeism, prepared in the Bureau's Productivity and Technological Development Division.

[11] See article, Many Women on 48-hour War Work Schedule, in Labor Information Bulletin, March 1943 p. 5.

Unionization of Employees

In 1918, over four-fifths of the employees were reported to be working in "open shops." "Nonunion" and "union" shops employed a relatively small part of the total. The number of workers who belonged to unions cannot be ascertained from the War Department survey.

	Number of employees	*Percent*
Total	395, 305	100. 0
Nonunion plants	42, 426	10. 7
Open-shop plants	329, 334	83. 3
Union-shop plants	23, 545	6. 0

The National War Labor Board of the first World War recognized the right of workers to organize and bargain collectively, and under its protection unions were able to gain a foothold in many plants. However, the characteristics of the nonunion shops may be ascribed to most plants termed "open" shops, since the presence of union members in many of these plants generally did not lead to collective-bargaining contracts.

Among the plants holding union contracts in 1918, coverage of the workers was small compared to the extent of present-day unionization. The only large union in the field then was the American Federation of Labor, which at that time was concerned almost entirely with the organization of skilled workers.

Labor Turnover

A major deterrent to the efficient operation of any business is an excessive rate of turnover of its employees. The hiring of new replacements means that time must be taken from the job by proficient people to teach the newcomers. Considerable productivity is lost during the instruction period and until the new worker can fill the requirements of the job. Production also falls, especially in periods of labor shortage, while a search is made for replacements with the needed qualifications.

Some turnover is essential to the running of an efficient plant. Ineffectual workers must be replaced and those of ability promoted. War industries offer high wages to obtain needed men, and to the degree that these men come from nonwar industries, the resultant turnover thus induced in the nonwar plants may be considered essential. Labor turnover caused by large-scale inductions into the armed services would also be placed in the "essential" category.

On the other hand, much economically wasteful labor turnover may result from wage and other incentives which draw workers from one essential industry to another or from one employer to another within the same industry. Other important causes of excessive labor turnover are the lack of adequate housing conditions, poor transportation, and inadequate service facilities in the crowded industrial areas.

Ordnance plants reporting turnover rates in 1918 had on the average an annual turnover rate of 65 percent.[12] The average yearly rate of

[12] Although the 1918 survey does not define "turnover," other industrial studies made at that time regard turnover as meaning the rate of separation of employees from a plant (see The Turnover of Factory Labor, by Sumner H. Slichter, New York, D. Appleton & Co., 1919; also report of Federal Board for Vocational Education: The Turnover of Labor, Washington, 1919).

separation in plants engaged in the manufacture of ordnance, based on figures for the first 6 months of 1943, was 80.2 percent.

In 1918, about 16 percent of the employees worked in ordnance plants having a turnover rate of 200 percent or over; at the other extreme, 21.5 percent of the employees worked in plants with a turnover rate of less than 20 percent. The largest number of workers were employed in plants having from 40–99 percent turnover —although almost as many persons were employed in plants with 100–199 percent turnover.

From the other information reported by plants in the survey, the turnover rates may be related to housing conditions and wages. In plants reporting on housing conditions, about 80 percent of the 373,000 ordnance workers resided in industrial areas with "adequate" housing (table 4). In areas having "inadequate" housing, the extent to which the other 20 percent (78,000 employees) were inadequately housed cannot be determined. The subjective rating by each plant of the housing conditions in the local area may render the returns unreliable because of variations in the individual standards in defining "adequate" or "inadequate" housing conditions. However, plants reporting inadequate housing accommodations for their local areas had a considerably higher average yearly turnover among their workers than plants reporting adequate housing—97 percent as compared with 68 percent. This difference emphasizes the need for adequate housing conditions to prevent the exodus of workers who may be satisfied with the plant conditions, but who, nevertheless, move elsewhere to work in order to obtain suitable living quarters.

TABLE 4.—*Distribution of Ordnance Employees, by Plant Turnover Rates and Local Housing Conditions, 1918* [1]

urnover rates per 100 employees	Number of workers in plants with classified rates of turnover			Percentage distribution		
	Total	Housing adequate	Housing inadequate	Total	Housing adequate	Housing inadequate
Total [2]	372,785	295,122	77,663	100.0	100.0	100.0
0–19	80,069	71,247	8,822	21.5	24.1	11.4
20–39	52,231	40,446	11,785	14.0	13.7	15.2
40–99	95,118	76,098	19,020	25.5	25.8	24.5
100–199	84,636	61,538	23,098	22.7	20.9	29.7
200–299	26,164	19,402	6,762	7.0	6.6	8.7
300 and over	34,567	26,391	8,176	9.3	8.9	10.5

[1] Data are from U. S. War Department survey, Industrial Conditions in Ordnance Plants, 1918.
[2] Exludes 109,976 employees in plants not reporting turnover rates and/or housing conditions.

It might be expected that plants paying low wages would suffer greater losses of personnel than plants with higher wage scales, since lower-paid workers would seem likely to gravitate toward plants paying higher wages. There is no evidence to this effect in the 1918 ordnance-plant survey. In fact, the survey showed that plants with relatively high turnover were paying somewhat higher wages than plants with relatively low turnover. Plants whose employees had average earnings of less than $25 per week had an average turnover rate of 47 percent per year, while plants whose employees averaged $25 and over per week had a rate of 109 percent. The average wages

of employees working in plants having various rates of turnover were as follows:

Annual turnover rate (per 100 employees):	*Average weekly wage*
0–19	$23.58
20–39	24.03
40–99	23.06
100–199	26.89
200–299	24.63
300 and over	25.22

The higher-paying jobs are very often found in crowded regions with higher costs of living, poor housing and transportation conditions, and inadequate service facilities. These unfavorable circumstances, in addition to the greater competition for workers in the crowded industrial regions, may have contributed to the relatively high turnover rate reported in 1918 for plants paying high average wages.

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Conversion of Metalworking Industries to War Production, 1939–43[1]

Summary

STUDY of 35 metalworking industries affected by conversion[2] indicates that by April 1943, plants employing 45.8 percent of the wage earners in this group were principally engaged in the manufacture of combat munitions. Employment in plants where the major product was the same as before the war amounted to 42.4 percent of the total in these industries. The remaining 11.8 percent was in plants which had shifted from their pre-war product to other noncombat products.

There was a wide range in the degree of conversion among the industries surveyed; those whose peacetime product was consumers' durable goods generally showed the largest proportion of employment in plants converted to combat munitions. The ability of most of the metalworking industries to change their type of production has resulted in greater relative stability of their employment trends than would have otherwise occurred.

This analysis of conversion, utilizing data which have only recently become available, provides the first general measurement (in terms of employment) of the shifts of individual plants from their normal activities to munitions products. This summarization of these shifts by the peacetime industries in which they occurred not only describes the pattern of industrial conversion to war, but also establishes a basis for evaluating the impact of wartime changes and postwar reconversion upon employment in the industries involved.

Background and Importance of Conversion

One of the most significant developments of the war economy has been the large-scale conversion of enterprises in civilian metalworking industries to production of more direct use to the military services The shift of existing management, facility, and labor resources to military-type products has been perhaps the most important factor in the efficient and rapid establishment of the great munitions manufacturing system that is now producing at a rate which surpasses all previous experience. Through the diversion of existing plant and equipment to military products, the manpower and materials that would have been required for construction of new facilities have been conserved for more effective consumption in actual munitions production. The maintenance of management organizations through conversion has accomplished the transference of this vital skill without loss of efficiency. The necessary dilution of management skill to cover the expanded volume of production for war has been accomplished more easily by the assignment of contracts to established companies. Similar advantages were gained through the utilization of the labor forces of

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Occupational Outlook Division by Richard H. Lewis.

[2] For purposes of the study, "conversion" was defined as the shift of a plant from one industrial classification to another, as the result of a change in its major product. In some instances this shift has been accomplished by the addition of new facilities.

these corporations. Staffs of skilled workers familiar with the necessary precision methods were thus found available to provide the framework for the expanded employment that was required to achieve the war production goals. Conversion was also a simple method of assuring the utilization of labor supply in the areas where production was already established, instead of establishing new plants in locations that would force wasteful migration of workers from settled communities.

Although these were important motivations for relying on industrial conversion as a major tool in creating a war economy, the most impelling reason was the vital need for speed in meeting the urgent requirements of the armed forces. During the transition from defense production to war it was apparent that the metalworking resources of American industry would have to be concentrated on military production; conversion of the existing structure to the greatest possible extent was the logical short cut to this objective. The consequent preservation during the war period of many companies whose normal output has been curtailed or eliminated also diminishes the magnitude of the necessary post-war readjustment of the metalworking industries.

Several different methods of promoting conversion were used by the controlling Government agencies. Institution of priorities on critical materials and products, together with limitation and curtailment orders, forced companies engaged in nonessential production either to change their activities or to suspend operations. Divisions of the War Production Board encouraged and assisted subcontracting and contract pooling, to enable manufacturers whose facilities or resources were not suitable for undertaking prime contracts to engage in direct war production. The greatest governmental assistance has been that of financing additional equipment or new plant in cases where it was necessary to expand existing facilities. The resulting Government ownership of a large proportion of the new facilities may present a serious problem after the war when their possible utilization in peacetime production must be determined.

Description of Data Used for Analysis of Conversion

Conversion has been the subject of much general discussion, and specific instances have been described, but there has been no adequate measure of its general magnitude or analysis of the pattern that it has assumed. For some purposes it may be useful to study conversion by analyzing the composition of the current output of industries which are normally engaged in producing for civilian consumption. However, in order to determine the effect of conversion upon employment, a different approach is necessary. Since employment data are usually classified on the basis of each plant's major product, relating the pattern of conversion to employment necessarily involves an analysis of the shifts in major product of individual plants from peacetime products to munitions. A special tabulation, made at the request of the Bureau of Labor Statistics by the Facilities Utilization Section, Bureau of Planning and Statistics, of the War Production Board, has recently made it possible to evaluate the shifts, which had occurred by the first quarter of 1943, of plants from the industry groupings of the Bureau of Labor Statistics in which plants have been retained in their 1939 Census classification to new groupings based on current

product. The tabulation was made from reports to the Monthly Survey of Metalworking Industries (WPB–732) which covers the metalworking industries with the exception of smelting and refining of metals and rolling or drawing of basic shapes, and the aircraft, shipbuilding, and machine-tool industries.

The tabulation shows employment in the reporting plants, classified both by the industry designation assigned to the plant in the 1939 Census of Manufactures and also by the plant's current product. Thus it shows the number of plants (and their wage-earner employment in April 1943) which have remained in the same industry as in 1939, and the number which have shifted to making specific combat products.

These data have certain limitations for the purposes of matching with industries as classified by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in its current employment estimates, but these limitations do not seriously affect the validity of the analyses drawn from the tabulations. The WPB survey coverage in terms of employment is somewhat less than the estimated total employment in many industries, but the difference is not sufficient to invalidate the application of percentage distributions of employment derived from the WPB survey to total employment as estimated by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Another condition affecting the distribution of employment by current (April 1943) product is that this method provides no indication of the importance of munitions as minor products in plants which are still primarily engaged in their pre-war field of activity, or of civilian products in plants which are now principally producing munitions.

Effect of Conversion Upon Employment and the Industrial Structure

The precise measurement of the degree or extent of conversion in an industry or group of industries depends partly upon the definition of conversion implied. As indicated previously in the discussion of the basic data, conversion is defined in this analysis as the shift of a manufacturing establishment from one industrial classification to another as the result of a change in its major product. The diverse factors affecting such shifts and the variety of forms that they may assume should be understood, if a clear picture of the significance of conversion is to be obtained. In some cases, a plant has been able to change its major product with but slight modification of its technical processes. Other plants have had to make drastic changes in their existing manufacturing facilities in order to accomplish the transition to munitions production. In many instances, it has been necessary to add buildings or equipment, sometimes merely utilizing the shell of the old plant to house the new machinery.

Quite often a plant has continued to manufacture its regular product with the already existing equipment but has added new facilities adjacent to the old plant, which have produced a quantity of war materials large enough to comprise the major output of the total establishment. This combining of old and new plants into a new establishment with a changed major product represents an important type of conversion because it effects the transfer of the management skill and labor force of the company, even though the previous production has not been curtailed. Many contracts were placed,

with the object not that the companies convert or change their activities (because the regular product was also required in the war program) but that they extend their activities in order further to utilize their technical knowledge in the manufacture of ordnance or aircraft.

The importance to the war effort of the conversion of civilian industries to munitions production is shown by the proportion that workers in converted plants comprise of the estimated total wage-earner employment in ordnance plants. It is estimated that workers in converted establishments accounted for approximately 60 percent of the wage earners in ordnance plants in April 1943. They represented over 90 percent of the employment in tank plants and about 70 percent of the wage earners employed in plants making guns over 20 mm. In the manufacture of ammunition over 20 mm., workers in converted plants comprised almost 50 percent of the total wage-earner employment, even though the assembling and loading of the ammunition was carried on almost exclusively in the large plants especially constructed for this purpose.

PATTERN OF CONVERSION

The pattern of conversion among metalworking industries had been sufficiently well outlined by April 1943 to appraise its characteristics and significance. To understand the implications of this dramatic and rapid reshuffling of the industrial structure, in terms of employment trends both during the war and in the post-war period, it is necessary to analyze the result of conversion upon the industries most affected by it. Not all industries were faced with the problem of conversion. In those which, like the steel industry, produce basic metal shapes, or those which produce common components such as nuts and bolts, the change that occurred was a diversion of production to munitions uses rather than conversion to different products; such industries, therefore, have not been considered in this analysis. There was no need for conversion in such industries as the aircraft, shipbuilding, small-arms ammunition, and firearms industries. The machine-tools and machine-tool-accessories industries were not faced with the need for large-scale conversion until recently, because of their importance in tooling up for war production. Some conversion has taken place, but no comprehensive data are available to measure its extent.

Table 1 summarizes the data obtained from the War Production Board tabulation. It presents a percentage distribution of employment in peacetime industries by the current product classification of the individual plants. All of the wage earners in each plant are, of course, attributed to its major product. The Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates of total wage-earner employment in each industry are also shown as an indication of relative importance of the various industries. In the 35 industries considered, plants employing nearly half (45.8 percent) of the wage earners had converted to the manufacture of munitions products in April 1943. There is considerable variation in the degree of conversion among the metalworking industries. Some of the industries shown in table 1 are largely devoted to the manufacture of combat munitions, while others are still concentrating most of their manpower resources on their normal pre-war product or adaptations of it.

In evaluating the degree of conversion attained by the various industries, the fact that expansion of production and employment

TABLE 1.—*Percentage Distribution of Employment in Selected Metal-Fabri*

Peacetime industry (plants classified by principal product in 1939)	Number of wage earners April 1943 [2] (in thousands)	Percentage distribution of wage-earner employment by current major product, April 1943							
		Total	Same product [3]	Ordnance products					
				Total	Guns over 20 mm.	Small arms	Fire control	Ammunition over 20 mm.	Small arms ammunition
Selected metalworking industries, total	2,950.1	100.0	42.4	22.0	3.4	2.2	2.8	3.7	0.9
Iron and steel and their products:									
Tin cans and other tinware	29.4	100.0	69.7	7.5	------	2.1	------	2.9	------
Cutlery and edge tools	21.7	100.0	77.2	5.3	1.5	3.0	------	.8	------
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws).	28.2	100.0	70.9	4.6	------	.4	------	1.6	2.2
Hardware	44.5	100.0	40.5	26.2	1.0	3.3	------	9.3	4.2
Plumbers' supplies	23.6	100.0	25.3	28.0	.5	1.6	------	21.6	------
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment.	52.6	100.0	47.0	29.2	------	.5	2.2	11.5	------
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.	59.4	100.0	65.0	18.8	1.8	------	10.2	5.5	------
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing.	87.5	100.0	34.8	29.2	1.6	.7	.1	15.4	1.9
Structural and ornamental metalwork	70.2	100.0	58.2	18.6	7.0	.2	------	.8	------
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim.	12.1	100.0	11.8	7.5	3.2	------	------	------	------
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	6.9	100.0	76.2	15.0	------	------	------	3.8	------
Wirework	32.5	100.0	53.4	12.0	------	.8	------	8.4	------
Nonferrous metals and their products:									
Silverware and plated ware	11.8	100.0	60.0	1.2	1.2	------	------	------	------
Lighting equipment	23.1	100.0	33.8	30.0	------	26.9	.5	2.1	------
Sheet-metal work, n. e. c.	29.9	100.0	23.8	13.7	------	------	------	1.3	2.6
Clocks and watches	24.9	100.0	20.7	60.4	------	4.5	------	24.3	8.1
Machinery, except electrical:									
Machinery and machine-shop products.	487.3	100.0	52.6	14.3	6.7	.2	1.3	2.7	.2
Engines and turbines	67.7	100.0	74.4	10.8	.3	------	------	------	------
Tractors	49.3	100.0	62.2	15.7	------	------	------	5.1	------
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors.	35.1	100.0	69.6	20.9	13.4	------	------	4.1	------
Textile machinery	28.0	100.0	32.1	25.3	5.7	6.7	10.5	1.0	------
Pumps and pumping equipment	75.6	100.0	38.8	31.1	16.1	------	4.2	7.8	------
Typewriters, cash registers, adding and calculating machines.	46.3	100.0	47.8	43.1	21.9	18.5	1.8	.2	------
Washing machines, wringers, and dryers, domestic.	11.7	100.0	------	74.4	7.7	37.7	9.4	16.2	------
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial.	10.6	100.0	16.2	83.8	1.9	------	72.3	4.8	------
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment.	52.8	100.0	17.3	37.6	1.7	24.1	------	1.8	5.7
Automobiles	653.0	100.0	16.8	29.6	3.8	.6	------	4.1	1.9
Transportation equipment, except automobiles:									
Locomotives	33.0	100.0	9.7	73.4	------	------	------	------	------
Car building	65.5	100.0	30.8	46.0	------	------	------	4.8	------
Motorcycles	9.9	100.0	62.3	35.1	11.7	9.1	------	1.3	2.6
Electrical machinery:									
Electrical equipment	457.3	100.0	58.8	9.6	.4	3.6	1.3	1.8	.7
Communication equipment	106.8	100.0	20.6	2.7	.8	------	.9	1.0	------
Radios and phonographs	100.8	100.0	[5] 92.9	3.8	------	2.4	.9	------	------
Miscellaneous industries:									
Professional and scientific instruments and fire-control equipment.	73.2	100.0	16.1	53.3	.9	------	52.4	------	------
Photographic apparatus	27.9	100.0	48.2	26.3	------	.3	24.5	------	1.5

[1] Based upon a tabulation of plants and employment classified both by the major product of each plant in 1939 and by the major product in the same plant in the first quarter of 1943. This tabulation was made from manufacturers' reports to the Facilities Utilization Section, Bureau of Planning and Statistics, War Production Board.

[2] Bureau of Labor Statistics employment estimates.

[3] Plants whose major product in the first quarter of 1943 was the same as the 1939 industry classification.

[4] Includes ordnance, n. e. c., ammunition, n. e. c., and ammunition boxes and chests.

[5] The manufacture of radios and radio equipment in the radio industry has been considered as the same product rather than conversion.

cating Industries Based on Wartime Major Product of Plants, April 1943 [1]

Percentage distribution of wage-earner employment by current major product, April 1943—Continued								Peacetime industry (plants classified by principal product in 1939)
Ordnance products—Con.								
Bombs, torpedoes, depth charges, and mines	Tanks and parts	Other ordnance [4]	Armored cars and scout cars	Radios and radio equipment	Aircraft and parts	Ships and parts	All other products	
2.0	6.4	0.6	1.3	5.5	15.4	1.6	11.8	Selected metalworking industries, total.
								Iron and steel and their products:
----------	-------	2.5	-------	.4	3.9	------	18.5	Tin cans and other tinware.
----------	-------	-------	-------	-------	1.5	------	16.0	Cutlery and edge tools.
.4	-------	-------	-------	-------	6.6	------	17.9	Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws).
3.6	1.0	3.8	.3	-------	3.6	1.0	28.4	Hardware.
2.2	.5	1.6	-------	-------	17.7	3.2	25.8	Plumbers' supplies.
5.9	4.7	4.4	.5	1.0	6.1	1.2	15.0	Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment.
.5	.8	-------	-------	.5	5.4	2.3	8.0	Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.
5.8	2.0	1.7	3.8	1.2	3.5	3.6	23.9	Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing.
.4	6.6	3.6	-------	-------	.4	6.1	16.7	Structural and ornamental metalwork.
4.3	-------	-------	-------	6.5	17.2	32.3	24.7	Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim.
8.7	-------	2.5	1.3	-------	-------	------	7.5	Steel barrels, kegs, and drums.
2.8	-------	-------	1.2	.8	4.4	2.0	26.2	Wirework.
								Nonferrous metals and their products:
----------	-------	-------	-------	-------	1.2	------	37.6	Silverware and plated ware.
.5	-------	-------	9.3	-------	9.3	------	17.6	Lighting equipment.
3.4	.4	6.0	-------	.9	15.7	9.8	36.1	Sheet-metal work, n. e. c.
22.1	-------	1.4	-------	-------	13.5	------	5.4	Clocks and watches.
								Machinery, except electrical:
1.2	1.6	.4	.2	.1	11.7	4.2	16.9	Machinery and machine-shop products.
.7	5.7	4.1	-------	-------	2.8	.1	11.9	Engines and turbines.
----------	10.6	-------	-------	-------	.4	------	21.7	Tractors.
.6	2.8	-------	-------	-------	------	------	9.5	Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors.
----------	1.4	-------	-------	-------	9.1	------	33.5	Textile machinery.
----------	3.0	-------	-------	13.8	.9	5.9	9.5	Pumps and pumping equipment.
.7	-------	-------	-------	-------	7.7	------	1.4	Typewriters, cash registers, adding and calculating machines.
3.4	-------	-------	-------	-------	23.9	------	1.7	Washing machines, wringers, and dryers, domestic.
4.8	-------	-------	-------	-------	------	------	------	Sewing machines, domestic and industrial.
2.8	-------	1.5	-------	-------	21.3	2.4	21.4	Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment.
3.6	15.5	.1	4.1	-------	42.4	.1	7.0	Automobiles.
								Transportation equipment, except automobiles:
----------	73.4	-------	-------	-------	------	------	16.9	Locomotives.
6.8	34.4	-------	-------	1.7	17.8	1.4	2.3	Car building.
----------	10.4	-------	-------	1.3	------	------	1.3	Motorcycles.
								Electrical machinery:
.4	1.2	.2	1.1	14.1	8.1	------	8.3	Electrical equipment.
----------	-------	-------	-------	72.3	.7	------	3.7	Communication equipment.
----------	.5	-------	-------	(5)	2.6	------	.7	Radios and phonographs.
								Miscellaneous industries:
----------	-------	-------	-------	-------	17.9	------	12.7	Professional and scientific instruments and fire-control equipment.
----------	-------	-------	-------	21.9	------	------	3.6	Photographic apparatus.

accompanied the shift in utilization of resources must be considered. Many industries have increased their employment greatly. An apparently high degree of conversion in certain industries relative to others—as shown in table 1—may imply merely a greater increase of employment in the converted plants.

The most important factor affecting the pattern of conversion was the relative importance of each industry's regular product in the war conomy. Many industries turn out products which, with perhaps some modification, are required in large quantities by the military services and they consequently have been faced with merely a change in type of consumption. The radio industry provides a good example of this situation. Other industries produced machinery or products used in construction which were necessary for the tooling and retooling of the wartime industrial structure. In some, the regular product was considered so essential to civilian welfare that a substantial volume of normal production was permitted.

Table 2 indicates that of the 35 industries under study, 7, whose wage-earner employment in April 1943 was 913,200 or 31 percent of the total in the selected industries, were more than 70 percent converted to military products. At the other end of the scale were 12 industries employing 513,000 wage earners, in which the conversion ratio was less than 30 percent.

TABLE 2.—*Distribution of Selected Metal-Fabricating Industries by Their Percentage of Conversion to Military Products, April 1943* [1]

Percent of conversion to military products	Number of industries	Number of wage earners (in thousands)	Percent of employment in the selected industries
Total	35	2,950.1	100.0
0.0–10.0 percent	3	134.3	4.6
10.1–20.0 percent	5	181.5	6.2
20.1–30.0 percent	4	197.2	6.7
30.1–40.0 percent	6	1,079.6	36.5
40.1–50.0 percent	5	192.0	6.5
50.1–60.0 percent	2	121.9	4.1
60.1–70.0 percent	3	130.4	4.4
70.1–80.0 percent	5	890.9	30.2
80.1–90.0 percent	1	10.6	.4
90.1–100.0 percent	1	11.7	.4

[1] Military products are defined as ordnance, armored cars and scout cars, radios and radio equipment, aircraft and parts, and ships and parts. Computations from data of Bureau of Labor Statistics, and Facilities Utilization Section, Bureau of Planning and Statistics, War Production Board.

The pattern of conversion becomes clearer when distribution of the industries by their ratio of conversion to military products is analyzed. Most of the industries that had the highest ratios of conversion were consumer durable-goods industries such as automobiles, clocks and watches, sewing machines, and household washing machines, whose normal production was severely curtailed by orders of the War Production Board. Another industry whose conversion was substantial is the locomotive industry which undertook extensive contracts for tank production, thereby greatly expanding its volume of employment (see table 3).

In examining the industries in which conversion was less pronounced it is apparent that these industries are typically either those whose normal product is considered essential in direct military or civilian consumption or those which produced machinery or metallic

construction materials. Industries such as tractors, hand tools, steel barrels, agricultural machinery, and structural and ornamental metalwork fall in one or the other of these categories. In the tin-can industry not only was the normal product continued, although in smaller quantity, but technical difficulties in conversion (because of the nature of its machinery) were also encountered.

In addition to the factors listed above, a factor that may affect the ratio of conversion to military products is the ability of an industry to solve its conversion problem by shifting to nonmilitary goods that are more essential than its regular products. Differences in classification procedure which affect the current industry designation sometimes make it difficult to measure precisely this type of shift, but it undoubtedly has been important in maintaining employment in many industries.

The pattern of conversion can, perhaps, be best made clear by examining its effect upon specific industries. The automobile industry was the largest single industry seriously affected by conversion and it also has converted to a greater extent than most of the other industries. In April 1943, 76.2 percent of the employment in this industry was in plants whose major product was ordnance, aircraft and parts, or armored cars and scout cars. This industry is also unique because in the latter part of 1941 it served as a model for the general policy of conversion which was then being formulated. It possessed vast facilities for mass-production manufacturing and it had a management and labor force experienced in the volume output of large units involving a considerable amount of precision work. The largest portion of its output, passenger cars, had gone almost entirely to civilian use and had been at peak levels for the past 2 years, resulting in an accumulation of a supply of automobiles in use or in inventory which was believed to be sufficient for all essential civilian purposes for some time to come. Under these favorable conditions the decision was made in the fall of 1941 to curtail automobile production by a considerable percentage and to plan for the utilization of the facilities and labor thus made available in the production of munitions. In February 1942, after the United States entered the war, the production of passenger automobiles was eliminated entirely and general conversion of the industry commenced. The industry has converted primarily to the manufacture of aircraft and parts, and combat tanks, although plants employing substantial numbers of workers are also engaged in making ammunition and guns. The industry has also, of course, maintained a large production of trucks and commercial vehicles; in addition it is manufacturing armored cars and scout cars, which in table 1 has been considered a conversion although involving only a modification of product. Some plants in the industry are now also engaged in the production of marine engines and industrial machinery. Many of these conversions have involved considerable expansion of facilities.

The industry has surpassed its former peak employment and further increases are anticipated. In June 1941, prior to the curtailment in automobile production, wage-earner employment had reached 588,000. By March 1942, when the industry was in the initial stages of its total conversion program, the number of workers had fallen to only 370,000 but thereafter it rose sharply and continuously, passing 650,000 in April 1943; only a little over 100,000 of these workers were in plants whose major product was the same as before the war (table 3).

The clock and watch industry was another consumers' durable-goods producer which was forced to convert, by the curtailment of its output. It provides an interesting contrast to the automobile industry and other large-scale industries because of the relative importance, in its technology, of precision-manufacturing methods rather than use of large machinery and equipment. Because of this, the watch industry has shifted to munitions products such as fuses and other components of artillery ammunition and bombs, and also to aircraft instruments—all products requiring skills and manufacturing techniques related to its usual peacetime activities. Because its facilities did not lend themselves to volume production of the large-size items for which the war demand was greatest, and because its precision business was insufficient, the industry was unable to maintain the level of employment it had reached in 1941—employment showing a slight decrease from the peak of 28,200 to the April 1943 level of 25,000.

The refrigerator industry, its production being limited to commercial refrigeration and air-conditioning equipment, was faced with the necessity of converting. That it was largely successful in solving this problem is shown by the fact that its employment in April 1943 of 53,000 was only slightly less than the June 1941 peak of 54,500, although during the conversion period employment had fallen to 31,500 in June 1942. Small arms and aircraft parts were the principal new fields entered by the industry. One large plant, with the addition of substantial new facilities, changed its major product from refrigerators to turbines.

The engine and turbine industry is an example of one whose normal peacetime products could be utilized directly in the war program; its energies have been devoted almost entirely to the manufacture either of its customary product or of adaptations of it. Some of the production is for tank engines and has thus been shown here under ordnance; other shifts have been to such products as heat exchangers, compressors, and machine tools Because its output is important to the construction and shipbuilding programs, employment has increased sharply over the pre-war level of June 1940.

Since the regular activity of the fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork industry was vital to the war construction program, up to April 1943 its rate of conversion had been relatively slow. Its war activity was reflected in an expansion of employment rather than a shift from one type of product to another; munitions production was added to the normal activity—that of fabricating metal shapes for construction. As a result, employment had risen during 1941 to a peak of 56,400 in August of that year, then leveled off until January 1942 when it again began to climb. By April 1943 it was more than 85 percent higher than in June 1940, before the defense program was begun. The curtailment of new construction should shift the balance of production in this industry toward the munitions products which are just beginning to play an important role. Thus far, the munitions output of the industry has been guns, tanks, and ships, particularly landing vessels.

In the agricultural machinery industry, after a program of conversion had been initiated, a change in policy reversed the trend of production back to the regular agricultural machinery products which had been determined to be vital for the war food program. The proportion of workers in plants principally engaged on munitions products, therefore, is not so high as had been anticipated, accounting

for only 21 percent of the total employment in April 1943. Guns and parts are the principal combat products made in this industry. Employment, which had fallen during the period when conversion was under way, rose again under the impetus of the increased requirements for agricultural machinery and in April 1943 was approaching the peak of 40,300 reached in 1941.

The stove industry presents an interesting study in conversion because of the way in which the change-over to munitions production was planned. When the decision to curtail the output of stoves was made it was also decided to concentrate the remaining production in the smaller plants and to encourage the larger plants to utilize their facilities for ordnance manufacturing by completely prohibiting their manufacture of stoves. That this program has been successful is shown by the recent rise in employment from the low point of the conversion period (45,000 in August 1942) to 52,600 in April 1943, although the 1941 peak of 62,300 has not been regained. Munitions manufacturing in the stove industry has been concentrated largely upon artillery ammunition and bombs, but aircraft-parts production is also important.

The munitions production of the stamped and pressed metal products industry is well distributed by type; ammunition and bombs are the predominant products. The nature of the technology in this industry was such that it could readily adapt its machinery to making parts for war–essential products. An important segment of this industry previously had been engaged in the manufacture of automobile stampings and in this group of plants the rate of conversion is higher than in the others. The industry is producing a wide variety of stamped products, many of which have been classified by their end use into other categories, under the current product classification of the WPB survey. Because of the adaptable nature of this industry it expanded its employment after the temporary decline which occurred while the shift to munitions products was being completed. By April 1943 employment had passed the peak of 83,900 reached in September 1941.

In considering the distributions of employment, it is necessary to emphasize again that they were based upon a grouping of plants by their current major product and do not present a complete picture of all the munitions production carried on in metalworking industries. Many plants which continued to devote most of their facilities to their regular product, to meet the requirements of the military services or war industries, have also taken on substantial contracts for ordnance materials. Since the plant is classified by its major product in these tabulations, these minor products do not appear in the employment distributions, although their total influence upon the employment in the industry may be very significant. It has also been impossible in this analysis to describe in detail the conversion or shifts to products of nonmilitary type. As indicated previously, these shifts are often hard to evaluate because in many cases it is difficult to determine whether an apparent shift is due merely to a difference in classification procedure, which would place the plant in a different industry designation in the current product tabulation. These shifts, however, have been an important factor in maintaining employment in many industries which are unable for various reasons to convert readily to military products.

TABLE 3.—*Trend of Employment in Selected Metal-Fabricating Industries, June 1940–April 1943*

Peacetime industry (plants classified by principal product in 1939)	Wage-earner employment [1] (in thousands)						Percent of change from June 1940 to April 1943 in total wage-earner employment	Wage earners in April 1943 in plants making same principal product as before war, as percent of total wage earners in June 1940
	June 1940	Peak month of 1941		Lowest month of 1942		April 1943		
						Total	Estimated number in plants making same product as in 1939 [2]	
Iron and steel and their products:								
Tin cans and other tinware	33.8	(Aug.)	47.9	(Dec.)	28.3	29.4	20.6	−13.0	60.9
Cutlery and edge tools	16.5	(Dec.)	21.9	(Sept.)	20.1	21.7	16.8	+31.5	101.8
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	16.2	(Dec.)	26.5	(Sept.)	26.5	28.2	20.1	+74.1	124.1
Hardware	37.3	(Oct.)	50.6	(Nov.)	41.7	44.5	17.9	+19.3	48.0
Plumbers' supplies	26.3	(Aug.)	32.6	(Sept.)	19.6	23.6	6.0	−10.3	22.8
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment	49.2	(Aug.)	62.3	(Aug.)	45.0	52.6	24.7	+6.9	50.2
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	32.4	(Oct.)	51.1	(June)	47.9	59.4	38.5	+83.3	118.8
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	56.2	(Sept.)	83.9	(July)	73.5	87.5	30.3	+55.7	53.9
Structural and ornamental metalwork	37.7	(Aug.)	56.4	(Jan.)	54.2	70.2	41.1	+86.2	109.0
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	7.7	(Nov.)	11.1	(Sept.)	10.2	12.1	1.4	+57.1	18.2
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	6.5	(Nov.)	8.8	(Nov.)	6.7	6.9	5.2	+6.2	80.0
Wirework	31.3	(June)	44.4	(Sept.)	30.9	32.5	17.4	+3.8	55.6
Nonferrous metals and their products:									
Silverware and plated ware	11.9	(Oct.)	15.2	(July)	11.2	11.8	7.2	−.8	60.5
Lighting equipment	20.9	(Oct.)	30.7	(Sept.)	21.1	23.1	7.9	+10.5	37.8
Sheet-metal work, n. e. c	20.1	(Sept.)	28.2	(Jan.)	27.2	29.9	7.1	+48.8	35.3
Clocks and watches	21.8	(July)	28.2	(Dec.)	25.7	24.9	5.2	+14.2	23.9
Machinery, except electrical:									
Machinery and machine-shop products	234.0	(Dec.)	367.0	(Jan.)	374.3	487.3	256.3	+108.2	109.5
Engines and turbines	23.2	(Dec.)	40.4	(Jan.)	41.7	67.7	50.4	+191.8	217.2
Tractors	34.4	(Nov.)	44.1	(Apr.)	43.2	49.3	30.7	+43.3	89.2
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	32.1	(Aug.)	40.3	(Nov.)	29.5	35.1	24.5	+9.3	76.3
Textile machinery	22.5	(Dec.)	31.1	(Oct.)	28.7	28.0	9.0	+24.4	40.0
Pumps and pumping equipment	28.8	(Dec.)	52.2	(Jan.)	54.3	75.6	29.4	+162.5	102.1
Typewriters, cash registers, adding and calculating machines	34.4	(Nov.)	48.3	(Aug.)	40.1	46.3	22.1	+34.6	64.2
Washing machines, wringers and dryers, domestic	7.3	(July)	10.4	(June)	7.2	11.7	.....	+60.3	.....
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	8.4	(Dec.)	10.8	(July)	9.8	10.6	1.7	+26.2	20.2
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	42.3	(June)	54.5	(June)	31.5	52.8	9.1	+24.8	21.6
Automobiles	430.0	(June)	588.0	(Mar.)	370.3	653.0	109.7	+51.9	25.5
Transportation equipment, except automobiles:									
Locomotives	8.1	(Dec.)	22.7	(Jan.)	24.5	33.0	3.2	+307.4	39.5
Car building	33.6	(Dec.)	65.3	(July)	61.0	65.5	20.2	+94.9	60.1
Motorcycles	8.0	(Nov.)	11.8	(Nov.)	9.0	9.9	6.2	+23.8	77.5
Electrical machinery:									
Electrical equipment	207.0	(Dec.)	332.0	(Jan.)	328.6	457.3	269.0	+120.9	130.0
Communication equipment	36.3	(Dec.)	73.0	(Jan.)	73.9	106.8	22.1	+194.2	60.9
Radios and phonographs	46.2	(Dec.)	71.5	(June)	62.9	100.8	93.7	+118.2	202.8
Miscellaneous industries:									
Professional and scientific instruments and fire-control equipment	13.0	(Dec.)	27.9	(Jan.)	29.6	73.2	11.8	+463.1	90.8
Photographic apparatus	18.7	(Aug.)	22.0	(Jan.)	22.2	27.9	13.5	+49.2	72.2

[1] Based on Bureau of Labor Statistics data.

[2] Obtained by applying percentage analyses of employment, as shown in table 1, to the Bureau of Labor Statistics employment estimate for each industry. Other plants which had changed their principal product between 1939 and the first quarter of 1943 may also have had some employees working on their pre-war product in April 1943, but since employment data are classified on the basis of the plant as a whole, these employees are not shown in the tabulation as working on the same product.

Table 3 provides an additional picture of the success of metalworking industries in adapting to wartime conditions. The trend of employment provides a reliable indication of the relative effect of the war upon those industries, and a comparison of this trend with employment in plants currently engaged principally on the regular product of the industry measures the effect of conversion. Examination of table 3 reveals that the majority of the industries have been able to continue a level of employment higher than that of the predefense period. The industries which failed in this respect are generally those with technological limitations either in their facilities or in their experience with the types of product which would be required for war use. In considering the trend of employment between 1940 and April 1943 it should be realized that, because average weekly hours have increased sharply during the period, the level of weekly man-hours in April 1943 was relatively higher than that of employment.

Conversion has proved to be a stabilizing influence on employment and has limited the redistribution of employment incidental to the war expansion. It has provided continuity of employment in terms of companies and industries, thereby reducing the wartime reshuffling of the labor force, and has tended to diminish the scale of the post-war readjustments that will be necessary when American industry is reconverted to its peacetime activities. These readjustments may, however, be considerable in some industries. Table 1 provides a basis for evaluating in terms of employment, the varying impact of post-war reconversion upon the metalworking industries. For example, the fact that only one-sixth of the automobile industry's 653,000 wage earners in April 1943 were in plants which had continued to make principally their pre-war product indicates the magnitude of that industry's post-war readjustment. The economic situation of the workers while reconversion is being effected in industries which have similarly changed their type of product to a considerable extent may represent one of the most important problems to be faced in the immediate post-war period.

Employment and Labor Conditions

Manpower Requirements in 1944[1]

Summary

A REAPPRAISAL of manpower needs for the coming year on the basis of recently revised estimates of munitions production indicates that requirements will not be so high as was previously anticipated. The principal needs for additional personnel are seen in the munitions industries, which will need 1,100,000 more workers in mid-1944 than were employed in July 1943, and in the armed forces, which will increase by 2,000,000 in net strength over the same period. About half of the net requirements may be met by workers shifting from other employment, where labor requirements will be reduced; the other half will be supplied by nonworkers entering the labor force. That this further expansion of the labor force is within reach of fulfillment is suggested by the 4,000,000 increase which occurred from July 1942 to July 1943, and is confirmed by examination of remaining labor reserves.[2]

Although the supply of workers in the Nation as a whole is expected to be more than adequate to meet anticipated needs, there may be serious difficulties in attaining required levels of employment in munitions plants situated in areas of labor shortage.

Estimates of Labor Requirements

A general description of the nature of the estimates of labor requirements, and of the production-program information and other assumptions upon which they are based, as well as the qualifications which should be considered in interpreting them was presented in a previous article[3] embodying estimates released by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the War Manpower Commission on June 28, 1943.

ARMED FORCES

The greatest single demand for manpower over the year is that of the armed forces. No changes are indicated from previous estimates of an increase of 2,000,000 in the net strength of the armed services. Since this estimate is net, it does not take account of replacements for casualties and discharges. In terms of the number who will have to be inducted into the services, this estimate must be considered a minimum.

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Occupational Outlook Division on the basis of a joint statement by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the War Manpower Commission.
[2] See article, "Labor Reserves Among Women, July 1943," p. 1098 of this issue.
[3] Monthly Labor Review, August 1943, (pp. 204–211): Manpower Requirements for 1943–1944.

MUNITIONS INDUSTRIES

Labor requirements of the munitions industries—which include principally the metal-using industries, metal mining, and selected chemicals and rubber industries—are now estimated at nearly a million less in July 1944 than were previously anticipated. The estimates published jointly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the War Manpower Commission in June 1943 were based upon the War Production Board's current summary of official munitions output and war construction schedules for 1944. Since then, the War Production Board has estimated that a somewhat lower level of munitions production may more reasonably be expected in 1944. Among the reasons given for the belief that "we are approaching our production ceiling" are the recent diminution in the monthly rate of increase of munitions production, anticipated cut-backs in the programs for some items for which requirements are reduced by the changing military situation, and the fact that schedules for some types of equipment had been set at ambitiously high levels which may be modified downward.

Based on a recent estimate by the War Production Board of the level of munitions production which may realistically be expected in 1944, with no substantial change in the assumptions as to output of civilian goods in the munitions industries, labor requirements in these industries are estimated to be 10.7 millions in July 1944 as compared with the previous estimate, based upon the official munitions production schedules, of 11.6 millions. The net additional requirements from July 1943 to July 1944 are therefore reduced from 2.0 million to 1.1 million in the present estimate.

OTHER EMPLOYMENT

Employment in the war agencies of the Federal Government—principally in the War and Navy Departments (excluding manufacturing activities) and the emergency agencies—is now expected to continue at current levels. It was previously anticipated, on the basis of official statements, that 300,000 additional employees would be needed.

The labor requirements of other civilian industries in July 1944 are currently estimated at about the same levels as previously indicated. Moderate increases are expected in labor needs in food, transportation, fuel, and utilities; textiles, apparel, and leather will need about the same number of workers as in July 1943; construction will release large numbers of employees, with a smaller proportionate cut in the industries making construction materials; and a moderate decline is expected in the "other manufacturing industries" group, which includes principally tobacco, paper and allied products, printing and publishing, and furniture and finished lumber products.

The only other changes in the estimates of present manpower requirements are substantial revisions in the expectations for the nonindustrial segments—trade, service, State and local government, Federal Government (other than war agencies, requirements for which are shown separately), and self-employed, proprietors, and domestic servants. The estimates now suggest a moderate decline in these branches of employment, rather than the substantial decrease indi-

cated in the earlier estimates. With respect to such activities, for which there is no programming on a national scale, the present estimates reflect not requirements, but rather, expectations of probable levels of employment. Although in some war production communities additional workers are needed in these activities, the manpower so employed in the country as a whole could be curtailed considerably, if necessary. The reduced munitions labor requirements, however, and the elasticity with which the labor force has already expanded indicate that declines of the magnitude previously considered necessary are not likely to occur. Because these activities are widely distributed over the country and can more readily utilize the skills of persons remaining in the Nation's labor reserves, it appears possible for nonindustrial employers to maintain their work force only slightly below the levels of July 1943 without impeding the necessary expansion of munitions employment and of the armed forces.

In summary, the needs for additional labor from July 1943 to July 1944 are shown in the accompanying statement:

	Number
Total	3, 300, 000
Armed forces	2, 000, 000
Munitions and munitions-material industries	1, 100, 000
Transportation, fuel, and utilities	100, 000
Food industries	100, 000

Declines totaling 1,500,000 are indicated in labor requirements in other segments of employment, as follows: Construction and building materials (800,000), nonindustrial employment (600,000), and the "other manufacturing" group (100,000). Nearly half of the net additional requirements can be met if all the workers released from these industries find their places in the expanding segments. Many construction workers have the types of skills adaptable to war production, and are accustomed to migrate to the available jobs. Many nonindustrial employees, on the other hand, will require retraining before they can be absorbed in the expanding industries.

The remainder of the requirements will have to be met by the entry of nonworkers into the labor force. The unemployed can no longer be depended upon as a source of labor for expansion of the working population. The number of unemployed has fluctuated around 1,000,000 through 1943. (Unemployment was estimated at 600,000 in November.) Because of between-job shifts resulting from changes in production schedules and other causes, it is assumed that unemployment will continue to fluctuate at approximately this level, with possibly some seasonal increase in the summer as students temporarily go into the labor market. Assuming the 1944 seasonal peaks in both unemployment and agriculture to be somewhat lower than in 1943, the number of new workers needed in the labor force in July 1944 to meet total requirements will be 1,500,000.

Sources of Labor Supply

The labor force has grown phenomenally during the last 2 years. The increase in the year ending July 1941 (900,000) was only a little more than normal. However, the labor force increased by

2,300,000 in the next year, and by 4,200,000 in the year ending July 1943. Because of the decrease which took place in unemployment, the number of persons at work or in the armed forces increased even more—4,500,000 in the first year, 5,200,000 in the second, and 5,800,000 in the third—a total of 15,500,000. In other words, during the first year of the defense program expansion of employment came almost exclusively from a reduction of unemployment and during the next year about half of it, but in the third year our primary dependence was upon new workers.

As would be expected, women and school girls represented the greater part of these additions to the labor force. Of the 7,400,000 persons entering the labor force in the 3 years, 4,000,000 were women. Since the annual net increase in the labor force resulting from population growth is about half a million men and women, the addition of 1,500,000 persons to meet manpower needs would require the entrance of about a million additional persons most of whom would have to be women. That this is feasible is confirmed by an examination of the remaining labor reserves among women.[1]

Although the manpower resources of the country as a whole appear to be ample to meet essential requirements, many of the persons available for work live in localities far from the jobs which have to be filled. The most difficult problems in manpower mobilization in the coming year will center in a limited number of areas where the labor demands of expanding war plants, together with the needs of consumer services which are strained to supply a rapidly increasing local population, have created serious shortages of labor. Those industries on which fall the heaviest burdens of further expansion in munitions output—aircraft and shipbuilding—are perhaps most affected by such labor shortages. Nearly seven-eighths of the workers in aircraft assembly plants and the same proportion of the shipbuilding workers in July 1943 were employed in areas currently experiencing labor shortages or areas in which shortages were expected in the near future. Furthermore, eight-tenths of the additional workers required in aircraft plants to raise production to program levels, and nine-tenths of the additional shipbuilding workers will have to be hired by plants in labor-shortage areas.

The problems of meeting the labor requirements of these areas are complicated by shortages of housing and local community services. With influx of additional workers limited by these factors, it becomes necessary to rely chiefly upon the persons already living in the areas. Channeling of workers into the jobs in which their skills are most needed, recruitment of nonworkers into the labor force, reducing unnecessary turnover, and the promotion of efficient utilization of labor already employed are the principal means by which this problem can be approached through manpower controls. The cooperation of other agencies of the Government has to be sought in those situations where the production load on a community proves to be greater than its available manpower can handle.

[1] See article "Labor Reserves Among Women, July 1943," p. 1098 of this issue.

Distribution of the Labor Force, July 1940 to July 1943, and Labor Requirements July 1944 [1]

Item	Number of persons (in millions)				
	July 1940	July 1941	July 1942	July 1943	July 1944 [2]
Total labor force, including armed forces	57.4	58.3	60.6	64.8	66.3
Armed forces [3]	.5	1.7	3.8	9.3	11.3
Civilian labor force	56.9	56.6	56.8	55.5	55.0
Unemployed	9.3	5.7	2.8	1.2	1.0
Employed	47.6	50.9	54.0	54.3	54.0
Agriculture	10.8	10.7	11.7	12.1	12.0
Nonagricultural employment	36.8	40.2	42.3	42.2	42.0
Munitions and munitions-materials industries [4]	4.1	5.9	7.8	9.6	10.7
Transportation, fuel and utilities [5]	3.9	4.2	4.3	4.4	4.5
Federal war agencies [6]	.1	.3	1.0	1.6	1.6
Construction and building materials [7]	2.5	3.1	3.1	2.1	1.3
Food [8]	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5
Textiles, clothing and leather [9]	2.4	2.9	2.8	2.7	2.7
Other manufacturing [10]	2.0	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.1
Nonindustrial employment [11]	20.5	20.2	19.7	18.2	17.6

[1] Sources: July 1940 to July 1943 data for civilian labor force, unemployed, employed, agricultural and nonagricultural employment, from Monthly Report on the Labor Force, Bureau of the Census. July 1940 to July 1943 data for components of nonagricultural employment from Bureau of Labor Statistics. Data on armed forces from published statements. Estimates for July 1944, except armed forces, by Bureau of Labor Statistics and War Manpower Commission, Reports and Analysis Service, with the cooperation of the Planning Division of the War Production Board. All data apply to approximately the tenth day of the month, except the armed-forces figures which relate to the first day of the month.

[2] Estimated.

[3] Net strength. Excludes net attrition resulting from battle casualties or other causes.

[4] Includes all metal-using industries, metal mining, coke-oven products, abrasives, selected chemicals, and rubber industries.

[5] Includes transportation and public utilities, coal mining, and petroleum production, drilling and refining.

[6] Excludes navy yards and manufacturing arsenals included in munitions group, as well as off-continent and force-account construction employment of war agencies.

[7] Includes contract construction, Federal force-account construction, lumber, quarrying, asphalt products, paint and varnishes, and building materials in the stone, clay, and glass group.

[8] Includes food manufacturing and tin cans.

[9] Includes textiles, apparel, leather, rayon and allied products, and rubber boots and shoes.

[10] Includes tobacco, paper and allied products, printing and publishing, furniture and finished lumber products, and parts of the chemicals, stone, clay, and glass, and miscellaneous manufacturing groups.

[11] Includes trade, service, State and local government, Federal Government except war agencies, self-employed, proprietors, and domestic servants.

Labor Reserves Among Women, July 1943 [1]

ESTIMATES prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the War Manpower Commission indicate that a net increase, in the total labor force, of about 1½ million persons will be needed between July 1943 and July 1944 in order to meet war production goals and the requirements of the armed services.[2] Aside from persons who may be expected to enter the labor force as a result of normal population growth, the potential labor supply of the United States available to meet these requirements is now concentrated among women engaged in their own home housework. Out of a total of about 29 million women in this category in July 1943, there were about 11 millions who were in the group which may be considered most available for labor market participation, i. e., women who reside in nonfarm areas (and are, therefore, more likely to be near centers of industrial activity) and who also do not have any children under 14 in the household. A little over 3½ million of these women were under 45 years

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Occupational Outlook Division by Seymour L. Wolfbein, with the cooperation of the Bureau of the Census.

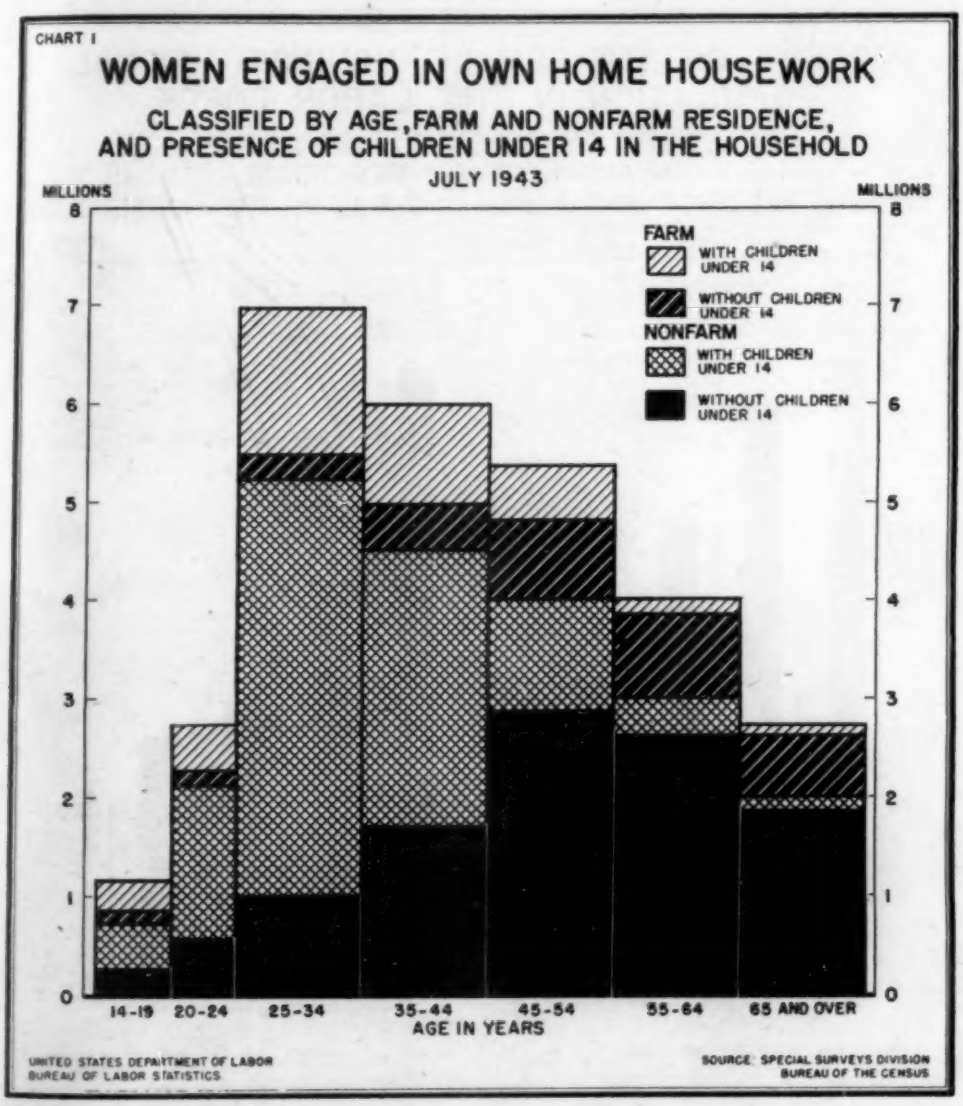
[2] See article "Manpower Requirements in 1944," p. 1094 of this issue.

of age—and it is from this group that most of the additional workers will have to come.

Information on the characteristics of the potential labor reserve among women has been made available from a special tabulation prepared by the Bureau of the Census on the basis of its sample Monthly Report on the Labor Force. A detailed classification of women engaged in their own home housework in July 1943 showing age, farm and nonfarm residence, and presence of children under 14 in the household is presented in chart 1.

It should be pointed out that the term "engaged in own home housework" is applied to any woman who gives as her reason for not actively seeking work the fact that she was "primarily occupied with housework in her own home." Since there is no limitation on the number of homemakers in any one home, there are cases where two women report themselves as homemakers within a single household. As a matter of fact, the tendency toward more than one homemaker in the household is accentuated during the summer months, when a large number of girls on summer vacation from school report themselves as homemakers. Aside from this seasonal factor, there has also been the effect of "doubling up" arising out of the movement of

CHART 1

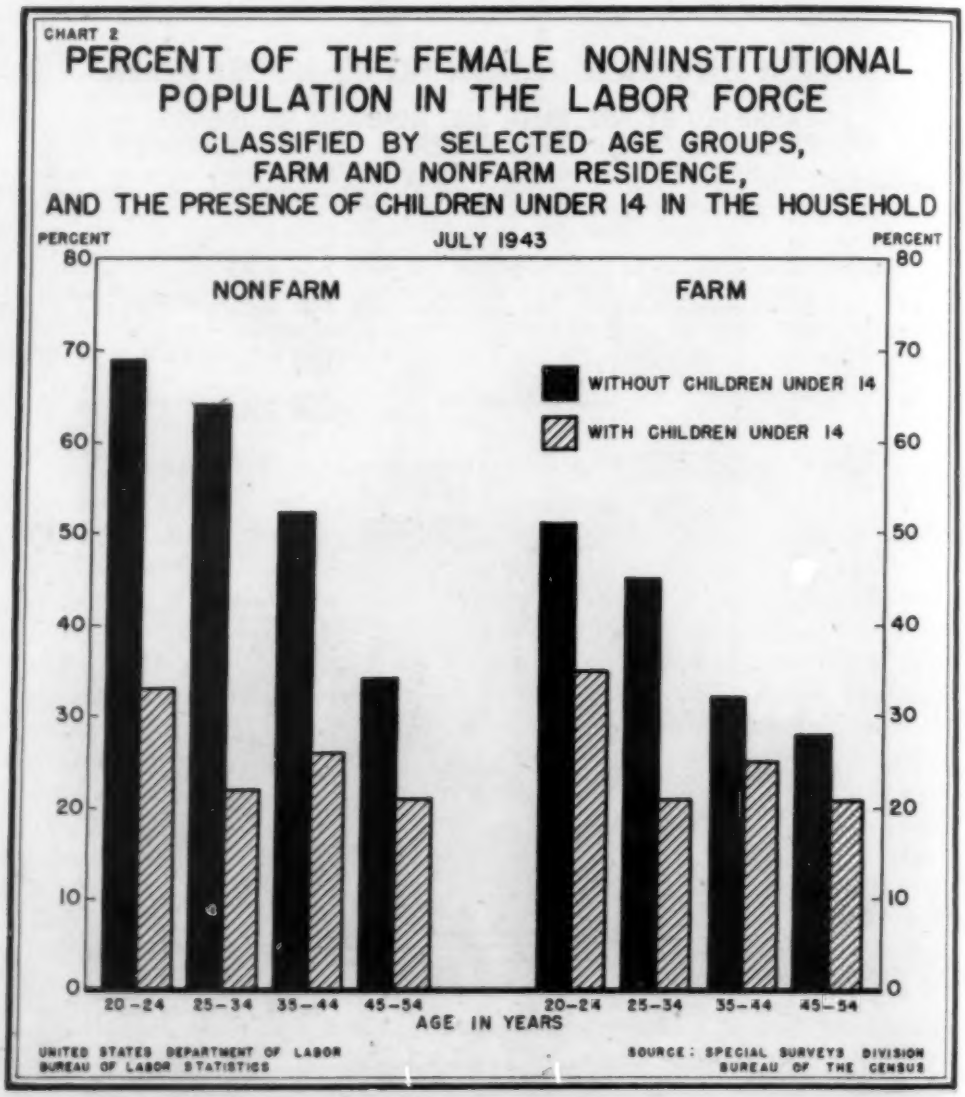


servicemen's wives back to the parents' household—a factor which will increase in importance with the drafting of fathers.

All of this must be kept in mind in interpreting the data classifying women engaged in their own home housework by presence of children under 14 in the household. It should be pointed out that women classified as having children under 14 in the household are not all necessarily responsible for the care of those children who, of course, may not even be their own. In July, for example, two-thirds of the homemakers 14–19 years of age were classified as having children under 14 in the household. The classification by presence of children is also less meaningful for the older age groups. The survey showed that in July 1943 there were almost a million homemakers 55 years and over with children under 14 in the household. Obviously few of this group were mothers of those children.

Effect of Dependency Status on Labor-Market Participation

The extent to which the presence of children under 14 in the household affects labor-market participation among women is shown in the accompanying table and in chart 2. The worker rate among non-



farm women 20–54 years of age without children under 14 in the household was double that of the corresponding group with children under 14 in July 1943. Women without children under 14 had a worker rate twice that of women with children in the age groups 20–24 and 35–44. Among those 25–34 years of age (where dependency status is most meaningful because most of the children under 14 are to be found among women in this age group and the presence of children under 14 in the household more nearly reflects actual responsibility for their care) the proportion of women in the labor force without children was three times as high as that for women with children under 14 in the household.

Differences in worker rates on the basis of dependency status were not so marked among the women residing in farm areas. The sharpest difference (as was the case among nonfarm workers) was among those 25–34 years, where the worker rate for women without children under 14 was double that for women with children.[3]

Percent of Female Noninstitutional Population 20–54 Years of Age in Civilian Labor Force, by Residence and Presence of Children Under 14 in Household, July 1943 [1]

Age	All women			Women residing in—					
				Farm areas			Nonfarm areas		
	Total	With children under 14	Without children under 14	Total	With children under 14	Without children under 14	Total	With children under 14	Without children under 14
Total, 20–54 years	37	25	49	29	25	35	39	25	52
20–24 years	49	34	66	41	35	51	51	33	69
25–34 years	35	22	61	26	21	45	37	22	64
35–44 years	36	26	49	28	25	32	39	26	52
45–54 years	29	21	32	25	21	28	31	21	34

[1] From unpublished data of Special Surveys Division, Bureau of the Census.

[3] These labor-force differences are minimized in the sense that more refined data contrasting worker rates among women actually responsible for the care of children and those who do not have that responsibility would show wider differences in labor-market rates.

Labor Conditions in Rumania

Summary

RUMANIA in 1930 had 18,057,028 people, of whom 10,542,900 were gainfully occupied. The greater number of those gainfully occupied were engaged in agriculture, fishing, and mining. Only 7.2 percent of the gainfully occupied were found in the manufacturing and mechanical industry. Unemployment during the early 1930's was estimated at from 50,000 to 130,000, but by the time Rumania entered the present war, unemployment was virtually nonexistent. Placement of the unemployed was the chief duty of 32 public employment offices.

Wages were fixed by collective bargaining, in considerable part. They varied from 6 lei (6 cents) per hour for unskilled labor to 45 lei (45 cents) per hour for linotype men. Wage deductions for social insurance and taxes ranged from 17 to 21 percent. A pre-war basic workweek of 48 hours was lengthened in some instances to 72 hours in 1941. In general, employees were to be paid 25 percent more than their basic pay for overtime work.

Labor unions, until 1938, played an important part in the regulation of relations between employers and employees. After 1938, the State assumed charge of all labor relations. Collective agreements constituted the basis for such relations. When a collective agreement could not be reached, the use of conciliation and arbitration was required by law.

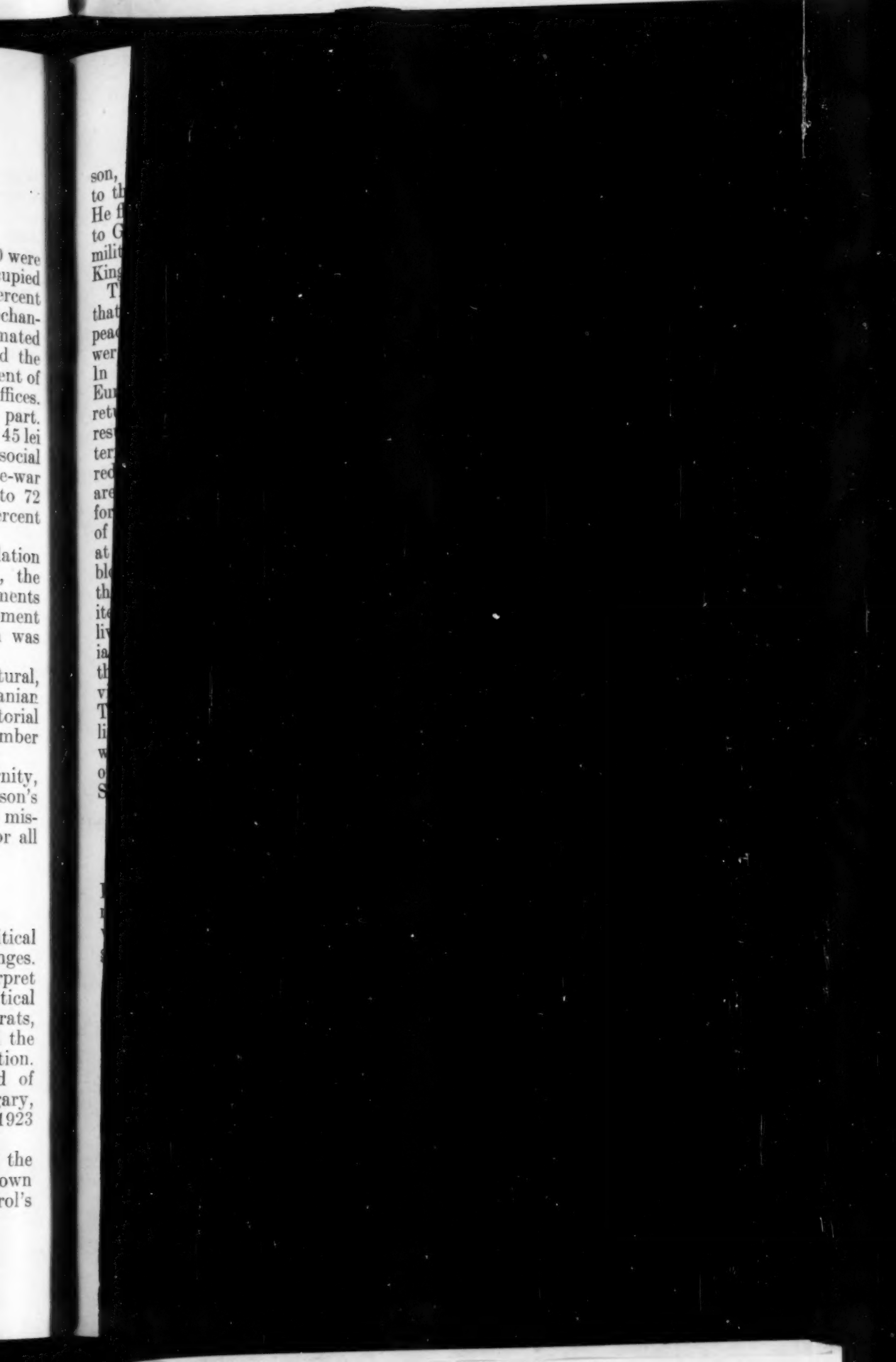
Cooperative associations included credit, consumers' agricultural, and forestry and other types of productive associations. Rumanian cooperatives suffered as a result of the present war, and the territorial losses suffered by Rumania in 1940 resulted in a decrease in the number of cooperative associations and in membership.

Social insurance in Rumania covered sickness, accidents, maternity, invalidity, old age, and death. Members of an insured person's family were also entitled to protection against many of these misfortunes. In general, social insurance was made compulsory for all workers whose monthly wages did not exceed 8,000 lei.

Historical Background

Subsequent to World War I, Rumania was the scene of political confusion and of very important territorial and population changes. It is essential to bear these factors in mind in attempting to interpret labor developments during this troubled period. Various political parties—Liberals, National Peasant Party, Nationalist Democrats, Conservative Democrats, Conservatives, the Peoples Party, and the National Party competed with one another for control of the nation. Successive issues over which these parties struggled consisted of expropriation of estates, fiscal reform, treaties with Poland, Hungary, Yugoslavia, and Czechoslovakia, adoption of the constitutions of 1923 and 1938, and the choice of a ruler.

On October 15, 1922, Ferdinand I and Queen Marie assumed the crowns of United Rumania. Ferdinand died in 1927, and as Crown Prince Carol had renounced his rights to the throne in 1925, Carol's



INDUSTRIAL MA

MAP of the BALKANS

VISUAL INFORMATION
UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

ROMANIA
BULGARIA
GREECE
TURKEY
BLACK SEA
AEGEAN SEA
Oradea
Arad
Timisoara
Resita
Anina
Sibiu
Brasov
Ploesti
Pitesti
Craiova
BUCHAREST
Braila
Galatz
Berlad
Valcov
Constantza
Ruschuk
Vidin
Plevna
Shumen
Varna
Nis
Watza
Sliven
Burgas
Kazanlik
Sterazagora
Jambol
SOFIA
Pleovdiv
Haskov
ISTANBUL
Skoplje
Alexandroupolis
THASAS
Salonika
LEMNOS
Dardanelles
Bursa
Balikesir
LESBOS
Larissa
Volos
Yanina
Smyrna
CHIOS
SAMOS
ATHENS
Patras
Corinth
Argus
Pirgos
Sparta
NAXOS
RHODES
Canea
Heraklion
CRETE
TOBACCO
GRAPES
OLIVES
WINE
WHEAT
MAIZE
GOATS
SHEEP
COTTON
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son, Prince Michael, became king under a regency. Carol returned to the throne on June 8, 1930, and was proclaimed King Carol II. He fled into exile on September 6, 1940, after surrendering his power to Gen. Ion Antonescu. Rumania thereupon became a pro-Fascist military dictatorship, only insignificant authority being vested in King Michael, who ascended the throne for a second time.

The population of Rumania has fluctuated greatly since 1914. In that year its citizens numbered only about 7,600,000, but under the peace treaties at the conclusion of World War I territorial acquisitions were such that by 1930 Rumania had a total population of 18,057,028. In 1940, however, as internal disorder grew in Rumania and as the European war moved toward the Balkans, Rumania was forced to return much of the territory acquired after the other war. As a result, that nation lost in all an estimated 38,825 square miles of territory with a population of approximately 6,265,000, thereby reducing her population to about 13,668,000. Ethnological statistics are not available for Rumania as recently as 1940, but there is information for 1930 which gives some indication of the composition of the population of that nation. Of the total population (18,057,028) at that time, 13,800,000, or about 76 percent, were of pure Rumanian blood and origin. These people were distributed fairly evenly throughout the nation. Of the remainder, 1,300,000 Magyars inhabited Transylvania and parts of the Banat, 800,000 Germans were living in and around the old Saxon and Alsatian towns of the Carpathian slopes and of the Banat, 1,100,000 Jews were scattered throughout the country, but formed a large percentage of the population in Bukovina and a majority of the inhabitants of Transylvania; 170,000 Turks, 290,000 Bulgars, and some 30,000 Tatars and gypsies were living in Moldavia, Walachia, and the Dobrudja. Some 37,000 Poles were found in Bukovina and neighboring regions. The remainder of the people included 792,000 Ukranians in Bessarabia and other Slavs in the northern departments.

Employment Conditions

Agriculture is the main industry of Rumania, with Old Rumania and Bessarabia producing the greatest amount of the chief crops which are maize, wheat, barley, oats, and rye. Tobacco, a State monopoly which in 1925 produced an income of more than 3,404,000,000 lei, is grown mainly in the Danube plains.

Petroleum is the most important mineral, but Rumania also has deposits of coal, gold, silver, copper, zinc, lead, antimony, iron ore, chrome, manganese, and pyrites.

The fisheries of the Danube region are a commercial asset. Next to the Volga fisheries, those of the lower Danube are the most extensive and the richest in Europe. On the other hand, the sea fisheries on the Rumanian coast are negligible.

The principal centers of industry are Ploesti for petroleum refining, Resita for iron and steel works, and Bucharest, Timisoara, Arad, Cluj, and Jassy for textile manufacture (although the textile industry is widely distributed over the country). Bucharest has other varied industries, also, and is the principal commercial and financial center.

INDUSTRIAL DISTRIBUTION OF THE GAINFULLY OCCUPIED

Rumania in 1930, with an area of 122,282 square miles—about twice the size of the New England States—had a population of 18,057,028. Of that number, 10,542,900, or 58.4 percent, were gainfully occupied (this term included all persons normally with gainful occupations, whether employed or unemployed when the enumeration was made).

By far the greater number of those gainfully occupied were engaged in agriculture, fishing, and mining. Only 7.2 percent of the gainfully occupied were to be found in industry, the term "industry" being used to include manufacturing, mechanical trades, and the production and distribution of water, gas, and electricity.

TABLE 1.—*Distribution of Gainfully Occupied Population in Rumania, by Industry Group and by Sex, 1930*

Industry	Gainfully occupied persons			
	Male	Female	Total	Percent of total
All industry groups	5,745,900	4,797,000	10,542,900	100.0
Agriculture, fishing, and mining	4,063,600	4,180,900	8,244,500	78.2
Manufacturing, mechanical trades, etc	617,900	141,200	759,100	7.2
Commerce and banking	226,000	111,400	337,400	3.2
Transportation	161,500	17,700	179,200	1.7
Public administration	386,000	99,000	485,000	4.6
Liberal professions, sports, and amusements	63,600	41,800	105,400	1.0
Other and unspecified	227,300	205,000	432,300	4.1

PRE-WAR EMPLOYMENT

Employment dropped sharply after 1929. In 1931 and 1932, the index number of employment was 24.4 percent less than for the base year of 1929. Beginning with 1934, employment increased until in 1938 the index was 43.9 above 1929.

	Employment index (1929=100)		*Employment index (1929=100)*
1929	100.0	1934	103.5
1930	86.6	1935	114.9
1931	75.6	1936	129.9
1932	75.6	1937	138.8
1933	92.0	1938	143.9

EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES

A system of free public employment offices was established in 1921, and finding of employment for fees was prohibited. These public agencies were to handle employment of every kind, and were given free use of the postal, telephone, and telegraph services. The exchanges had the right to propose and encourage the conclusion of labor agreements in writing. Beyond their normal functions, they were assigned the duty of following the state of the labor market at all times, and of proposing measures to prevent and combat shortage of employment or of labor.

Supervision and administration of the exchanges was vested in the Directorate of Employment Exchange Service in the Ministry of Labor. In 1938 this Directorate was supervising and administering 32 public employment offices throughout the country.

Wages, Hours, and Working Conditions

WORKERS' WAGES

Wage fixing.—Industrial wages were fixed largely by collective bargaining which was recognized by law in 1929. In that year also, provision was made for minimum wage boards to fix minimum wages in commercial, industrial, and private transport enterprises. In determining a wage, the board was to take into account such items as tips, board and lodging, and any other perquisites the worker received.

Wage controls established in 1941 proved inadequate for a nation at war, and by 1943 the State had established hourly maximum and minimum wage rates for all workers.

Trend of wages, 1929–39.—From 1929 to 1939, using the earlier year as a base, index numbers of money wages and (measured in purchasing power) of real wages in agriculture, industry, transportation, and commerce show a greater variation in money wages than in real wages. The former declined to a low of 61 in 1935, after which date it rose to 69 in 1939. At the same time, real wages went to 116 in 1931, fell to 111 for the next 2 years, then returned to 116 in 1934. From that date, real wages declined yearly until they reached 92 in 1939. These fluctuations in money wages and in real wages in agriculture, industry, transport, and commerce are shown in the following statement, for the years 1929 to 1939.

	Indexes (1929=100) of—	
	Money wages	*Real wages*
1929	100	100
1930	96	107
1931	85	116
1932	69	111
1933	63	111
1934	62	116
1935	61	110
1936	62	108
1937	66	106
1938	67	102
1939	69	92

For 1936, average wages in lei [1] with regard to various industries, classes, or sex of workers are shown in table 2. The table indicates that average hourly wages fluctuated from 24 lei (about 24 cents) for unskilled workers in mining and extractive industries to 224 lei (approximately $2.24) for skilled workers in lumber and furniture industries.

Deductions from wages.—In 1938, deductions from wages were made for social insurance and for various taxes. Social-insurance deductions amounted to 8 percent. A tax of 4 percent was levied on incomes not exceeding 4,000 lei, and of 8 percent on incomes of more than that amount; pensions of disabled ex-servicemen and of war widows and orphans were exempt from this tax.

Employers were required to deduct the amount of the income tax from sums paid by them to any person with whom they had concluded a labor agreement. The amounts collected were to be paid to the proper authorities in the month following that in which the deduction

[1] The principal unit of Rumanian money is the leu (plural, lei). Although its value, in terms of United States money, has fluctuated, for the purpose of this study the 1939 equivalent of the leu ($0.0101) will be taken. Thus, for all practical purposes, upon the 1939 base, 1 leu is the equivalent of 1 cent in United States currency.

was made. Other taxes deducted from wages and salaries included the following: National defense (2 percent), road (0.3 percent), and labor fund (0.5 percent). In addition to these deductions, there was a graduated surtax that ranged from 0.7 percent on incomes of 10,000 lei to 1.5 percent on incomes of 40,000 lei.

TABLE 2.—*Average Wages in Rumania, 1936, by Industry and Class or Sex of Worker*

Industry and class or sex of worker	Wages (in lei), 1936
Agriculture:	*Per day*
Men	35
Women	28
Building construction: Skilled workers	104–224
Lumber and furniture:	
Skilled workers	60–240
Semiskilled workers	48–112
Unskilled workers	30–55
Metallurgical and manufacturing industry:	
Skilled laborers	86–180
Semiskilled workers	40–72
Unskilled workers	36–40
Mining and extractive industries:	
Skilled workers	55–142
Semiskilled workers	52–92
Unskilled workers	24–36
Apprentices	53–80
Printing and publishing	67–150
Railway and motor transportation:	*Per month*
Average salary	4,320
Workers with university and secondary-school education	4,500–35,000
Workers with partial secondary schooling	3,300–25,000
	Per day
Workers in other branches of transportation	56–200
Street railways:	*Per month*
Newly employed ticket collectors	3,000
Ticket collectors	[1] 7,000
Motormen	3,000

[1] Maximum wage.

WAGES AND THE COST OF LIVING

For the 3 years before the present war, money wages rose steadily, but they did not keep pace with the cost of living. For that reason, the index of real wages fell from 100 in 1936 to 86.2 in 1939, as the following statistics indicate.

	Money wages	*Real wages*	*Cost of living*
1936	100.0	100.0	100
1937	106.5	98.6	108
1938	107.9	94.6	114
1939	112.9	86.2	131

Although no statistical data on money wages and the cost of living were available after 1939, wages and salaries were said to be lagging behind the rise in prices. According to the Economist (London), of January 23, 1943, these price movements were much more pronounced in Rumania than in any other Danubian country. The Economist stated the official price index showed that prices increased roughly by 200 percent from August 1939 to June 1942. During November and December 1942, further increases occurred in the price of sugar (60 percent), petrol (68 percent), and tobacco (50 percent). Postal and traffic rates were also increased. As a result of these advances, wages and salaries, in spite of some increases, were far behind the new general rise.

HOURS OF WORK

In general, normal hours of labor were restricted to 8 per day and 48 per week. Overtime was to be paid for at the rate of time and a quarter. With the advent of war, officials were authorized to extend the hours, when necessary for the war effort, to 72 per week.

VACATIONS WITH PAY

Vacations with pay were provided in a statute of 1929. A worker who had been employed uninterruptedly for 1 to 3 years in the same enterprise was entitled to at least 7 days' leave; from 3 to 5 years, at least 10 days; and from 5 to 10 years, at least 14 days. For periods longer than 10 years, the leave was to be increased by 1 day for each additional year. In no case, however, was annual leave to exceed 30 days. During the whole period of annual leave, the employee was to receive compensation equal to the average wage he received during the 3 preceding months, together with all the allowances corresponding to the days of leave. An employer who failed to grant an employee the statutory annual leave provided above was required to pay such worker compensation equivalent to double the amount which would have been due him for the whole period of leave. If an employee accepted employment in another enterprise during his statutory annual leave, he was deemed to have lost his rights and had to refund to the employer the sums received for the whole of the leave. In addition, he lost his right to annual leave during the following year.

FAMILY ALLOWANCES AND CHILD ENDOWMENT

A law of 1940 provided allowances for the families of men called to the service in a rank not higher than sergeant, if the dependents lacked the necessary means of subsistence. Such allowances were not liable to attachment or deduction on account of any liability of the persons called for military service. The nearest approach to child endowment was found in the paper, cellulose, and cardboard factories in which, after April 1, 1943, the workers were to be paid 500 lei each month for every child under 14 years of age.

COMPULSORY LABOR

Pre-war.—In 1937, there was introduced a system of compulsory service on work of public utility for young persons called up for pre-military training. The length of this service was fixed at not more than 60 days a year. Among the kinds of work upon which these persons could be employed were the following: Construction and repair of roads and railways; irrigation; the clearing of watercourses, land drainage, water supply; assistance for disabled persons, war widows, and the victims of catastrophes; defense works; and the reconstruction and repair of historic monuments and churches. The classification, supervision, and instruction of the persons subject to this compulsory employment were in the hands of the officers of the reserve. The work itself was organized by the State or, subject to authorization by the Government or a local committee, by institutions engaging in work of general interest, or by private persons.

Wartime control of labor.—Under the stress of wartime necessity for fully utilizing its manpower, Rumania in 1941 decreed that work was the national duty of the Rumanian people. Every inhabitant of that country was bound to serve the general interests of the State, by serving either in a private occupation or activity or in work of public utility. Only those who worked were entitled to the protection of the State. The State had the right to supervise the presence of each person in the labor field, and to require each person to perform—within the scope of a program of educational or economic activity—intellectual or manual work corresponding to his training and position. Under the act of 1941, every inhabitant of the country was required to have a compulsory work card in his possession as evidence of the discharge of his obligation to work. Persons violating this act were liable to imprisonment for not less than 6 months nor more than 2 years. Leaving the labor service without an order or permit to do so was punishable by detention for not less than 10 nor more than 20 days and a fine of from 1,000 to 10,000 lei.

Industrial Relations

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS

The largest organization of workers was the General Confederation of Labor, the Rumanian branch of the International Federation of Trade Unions. The following tabulation gives the membership figures for that organization on January 1 of each year from 1932 to 1939.

	Members		*Members*
1932	30, 483	1936	50, 523
1933	27, 748	1937	57, 584
1934	41, 627	1938	60, 000
1935	44, 358	1939	60, 000

The rounded figures for 1938 and 1939 may be explained in part by the virtual State control of unions inaugurated by the Government in 1938.

Many functions formerly performed by the unions have been taken over by the State. Thus, subsequent to August 1938, a Work and Joy Service, based on the Nazi pattern, was established in the Department of Labor. This service, regularized by an act of 1940, was created with a view to the better utilization of the spare time of workers through the establishment of institutions and activities connected with the working-class theater; libraries and the press; motion pictures; radio broadcasting; workers' universities and lectures; music; sports and physical training; touring; allotments and any other activities in connection with sound utilization of spare time.

COLLECTIVE AGREEMENTS

During the 10 years, 1929 to 1938, collective agreements declined from 218, affecting 76,495 workers, in 1929, to 80, covering 23,693 persons, in 1933. After 1933, each year except 1936 showed an increase in the number of agreements concluded, but at no time did that number approach the figure for 1929. The following statistics indicate the extent of collective agreements from 1929 to 1938.

	Agreements concluded	*Workers covered*		*Agreements concluded*	*Workers covered*
1929	218	76, 495	1934	92	24, 154
1930	174	46, 461	1935	106	42, 623
1931	177	50, 670	1936	116	25, 196
1932	101	25, 296	1937	119	29, 967
1933	80	23, 693	1938	157	32, 227

In the majority of cases, these collective agreements were concluded through the efforts of the Ministry of Labor factory inspectors. Others were concluded by direct negotiation between the parties concerned, by compulsory arbitration, or by voluntary arbitration. These agreements dealt largely with wages, hours of labor, and working conditions.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION

An act of 1920 provided for the use of conciliation and arbitration in the settlement of labor disputes. Under this law, a collective stoppage of work for causes connected with conditions of labor was prohibited in certain types of establishments. The enterprises covered by this statute were those which served public interests, and the closing down of which would endanger the existence and health of the people or the economic and social life of the country.

If the conciliation proceedings failed to result in an agreement, the parties were free to refer the dispute to an arbitration commission for decision. The arbitration commission was to consist, irrespective of the number of enterprises, of four regular members and two substitutes elected by the parties concerned for each case separately. Heading the commission was a president appointed by agreement among the four regular members of that body. The award of the commission was to be given by a majority of votes, with all the regular members of the commission present. In default of a majority, or in the event that either or both of the parties refused to send representatives to the arbitration commission, the award was to be issued by the president.

Arbitration awards were to be binding for the period of time specified in the award, or for not less than 6 months from the date of its issue. Failure to carry out the provisions laid down in the minutes of conciliation or in the award of the arbitration commission constituted sufficient reason for the termination of the contract of employment, and entitled the injured party to claim damages without prejudice to the application of the penal provisions of this act in appropriate cases. All fines imposed under this statute were to be collected for payment into the fund assigned for the organization of technical instruction under the Minister of Labor.

In the event of a dispute arising in an enterprise serving public interests, conciliation was to be attempted first. Representatives of the employer and workers, appearing before a representative of the Ministry of Labor, were to attempt to find a means of composing the dispute through conciliation. If an agreement was reached it was binding upon all parties affected for not less than 6 months, unless the parties had agreed to a shorter period of time. Terms of this agreement were to be posted in all establishments concerned.

LABOR DISPUTES

Of the disputes occurring between 1929 and 1938, more than 50 percent were adjusted with the aid of representatives of the Ministry of Labor. Demands of the workers were met in full in more than half of the cases. In table 3, the decrease shown in the number of man-days lost in 1937 and 1938 was due, in part, to the increasingly active role taken by the State in matters pertaining to labor.

TABLE 3.—*Labor Disputes in Rumania, 1929–38*

Year	Labor disputes	Workers involved	Man-days of idleness caused by disputes
1929	317	101,504	411,572
1930	330	64,965	184,002
1931	266	60,187	184,593
1932	328	62,124	103,673
1933	280	69,915	57,093
1934	259	38,494	156,065
1935	274	76,813	360,867
1936	345	83,988	195,605
1937	281	68,666	73,851
1938	210	54,314	52,359

Cooperatives

Cooperative associations of Greater Rumania fall into the following classes: Credit associations; consumers' cooperatives, with which the official statistics usually include the rural farm-supply associations; agricultural associations, including the land lease and purchase associations, the forestry associations, and a group of service associations; and productive associations, including agricultural processing associations (such as dairies), as well as both urban and rural associations carrying on productive activities in various industrial fields.

In 1938, the 11,312 organizations, some of which had been in existence from 1891, had a total membership of more than 1,500,000. Most of that number belonged to the cooperative credit associations, of which the people's banks constituted the outstanding form. The number and membership of the various cooperative associations in 1938 is indicated in the statement following.

	Number of associations	*Number of members*
All associations	11,312	1,519,911
Credit cooperatives	5,140	1,120,130
Supply and consumers' cooperatives	4,601	272,095
Land lease and purchase associations	468	25,686
Forestry associations	448	28,000
Other productive associations	655	74,000

When, in 1940, Rumania lost about 30 percent of its population and approximately 34 percent of its territory, a considerable number of cooperative associations were thereby lost to the Rumanian cooperative movement. The greatest cooperative losses were in Transylvania, but the cooperative movement was also well developed in Bessarabia and northern Bukovina, the cession of which reduced the total number of cooperative associations in Rumania by over 13 percent and the membership by 12 percent. The recovery of Bessarabia as a result of the German-Russian war restored a large part of these losses.

The use of the cooperative movement for the distribution of food to the people is indicated by a decree-law published October 1, 1940, which required the National Institute of Cooperation to carry out the instructions of the newly created Ministry of Coordination "with regard to general food supplies." In 1941 the cooperative law was completely revised, and a new law was written codifying various earlier enactments.

In 1942, by a series of decrees, Government control over the cooperative movement was strengthened, and a new type of "village bank" was created by the Government, to the capital of which the credit cooperatives were to be "allowed to contribute." These banks were directed to work with the rural cooperative associations for the purpose of accelerating agricultural production. "Farmers' communities" were also provided for, which were to take over most of the functions of the former agricultural cooperative associations. These associations, preferential treatment of which was promised by the Government, could be started by a minimum of 15 farmers, but must be approved by the regional chamber of commerce. By-passing the existing consumers' cooperatives also, the Government resorted to a plan (designed to protect the consumers from black-market operations) of forming compulsory consumer groups for the joint purchase of food and other essentials. These groups were to be organized in factories, offices, and other business enterprises as well as in public institutions.

Social Insurance

Although various systems of social insurance had been in existence since 1887, in different sections of what is now Rumania, it was not until 1933 that a unified, nation-wide system was created. Further improvement and development was brought about by an act of 1938. The insured risks covered sickness, accidents, maternity, invalidity, old age, and death. Members of an insured person's family were also entitled to protection against many of these misfortunes. This system, however, did not provide for unemployment insurance.

In general, social insurance was made compulsory for all workers whose monthly wages did not exceed 8,000 lei.

The necessary funds were to be obtained from contributions by the insured persons themselves, employers, annual State grants, interest on invested capital of the insurance funds, fines, and various fees and charges.

General administration of Rumania's social insurance resided in an institution known as the Central Social Insurance Fund. Under that agency were subordinate but autonomous regional funds, each of which covered an area in which there were approximately 15,000 insured persons. Some supervision of the central body was placed in the Council of Ministers to which was given the power to authorize increases in contributions.

SICKNESS INSURANCE

The insured person was entitled, from the first day of illness until recovery, to medical attendance, medicines, and other therapeutic requisites. Treatment in hospital could be prescribed by the social insurance doctor. The cost of transportation of the sick person, and if the case was serious, of the person accompanying him, was refunded

by the insurance fund. The period of hospital treatment at the expense of the insurance fund was not to exceed 26 weeks for the same illness, or 36 weeks during any period of 12 months for several cases of illness. The funds could grant treatment at a spa or health resort to members who had completed at least 100 contribution weeks during the 3 preceding years. Members of an insured person's family were also entitled to medical attendance and medicines, and could be sent to the hospital under the same conditions as the insured person, but for not more than 8 weeks. If the hospital belonged to the insurance fund, however, they could remain for 20 weeks, provided the insured person paid 25 percent of the cost from the beginning of the ninth week.

The insured person was entitled, from the fourth day of incapacity, to a cash allowance equal to 50 percent of his average wages, for not more than 26 weeks for the same illness, or 36 weeks during any 12-month period for several illnesses. When the insured person was sent to a hospital or to a health resort or spa, he was not entitled to the cash allowance, but half of it was to be paid to his dependents. The right to funeral benefit was conditional upon (1) the completion of at least 32 contribution weeks during the 2 years preceding the last illness; (2) the completion of at least 64 contribution weeks during the last 3 years, the right to benefit then to be maintained for 3 months after the person concerned left the insurance fund; or (3) the completion of 1,000 contribution weeks, the right to benefit then having been acquired unconditionally even though the person in question was no longer insured.

MATERNITY BENEFITS

An insured woman who had completed at least 26 contribution weeks in the 2 years preceding confinement was to be entitled to medical and surgical attendance and the necessary medicines, dressings, etc. If she had completed at least 36 contribution weeks during the preceding 12 months, or 52 contribution weeks during the preceding 2 years, she was also entitled to a cash allowance equal to sickness benefit for 12 weeks, at least 6 of which were required to follow the confinement. An insured woman who nursed her child was entitled, when maternity benefit ceased, to a nursing allowance equal to the maternity benefit, payable for a further 6 weeks. The wife of an insured person was entitled to the same benefits in kind as an insured woman. If an insured person had completed at least 36 contribution weeks during the preceding 12 months, or 52 contribution weeks during the preceding 2 years, his wife was entitled, for the 6 weeks following her confinement, to a cash allowance equal to 50 percent of the sickness benefit which would have been paid to the husband in the event of illness.

ACCIDENT BENEFITS

Medical attendance and medicines, hospital treatment, and a cash allowance were granted throughout the whole period of incapacity until recovery. For permanent total incapacity, the pension was equal to two-thirds of the average insured wage, which was deemed to be the average wage on which contributions for the previous 12 months were based. The pension was reduced proportionately when the incapacity was partial. In case of incapacity equal to or lower

than 20 percent, a lump sum was granted equal to 50 times the amount of the monthly pension corresponding to the degree of loss of earning capacity. If a totally incapacitated pensioner needed the constant attendance of another person, his pension was to be equal to his full insured remuneration.

In the event of a fatal accident, the widow was entitled, unless she remarried, to a life pension of 20 percent of the average wage of the deceased person. The same pension was payable to the widower of an insured woman if he was incapable of work. Legitimate, legitimized, or adopted children of the deceased person were entitled, up to 18 years of age, to a pension equal to 20 percent of his wages, or 30 percent in the case of an orphan who had lost both parents. Ascendants and collateral relatives (the latter up to 18 years of age) were entitled to a pension at the rate of 20 percent of the insured wage of the deceased person, but only if they were supported by him.

INVALIDITY, OLD-AGE, AND SURVIVORS' PENSIONS

An insured person could claim an invalidity pension when, after having exhausted his right to sickness benefit, he was still ill or incapable of work, or when, after the cessation of medical attendance, he found that his incapacity prevented him from performing paid work suitable to his qualifications and training.

An insured person was permitted to claim a pension only if he fulfilled one of the following conditions: (1) The completion of at least 200 contribution weeks before the incidence of the illness which had entailed invalidity, provided he had completed at least 16 contribution weeks each year. In the event of an interruption in the payment of contributions, he could redeem his rights by a further payment of 200 contributions. Insured persons who had already paid 200 contributions before the interruption were to be allowed to redeem their rights by the completion of 100 additional contribution weeks. (2) The completion of at least 1,000 contribution weeks before the beginning of invalidity; in this case no condition as to continuity of payment was required. The invalidity pension consisted of a basic sum, fixed at 4,800 lei a year, and annual increments graded by the wage class for which each weekly contribution was paid. These increments ranged from 1 lei for those in the lowest wage class to 14 lei for wage earners in the highest bracket. This invalidity pension was to be increased by one-third if the pensioner was totally incapacitated and needed the constant attendance of another person.

RETIREMENT PENSIONS

An insured person who, on reaching 60 years of age, had ceased all insurable work, was entitled to a retirement pension assessed in the same way as the invalidity pension. The pensionable age for women was fixed at 57. The qualifying period required for retirement pension was 400 contribution weeks, including at least 16 each year. If the insured person had completed at least 1,000 contribution weeks, he was entitled to a retirement pension irrespective of the number of contributions paid each year.

The pensionable age was reduced to 55 years for insured persons employed in underground work in mines, or in blast furnaces, steel rolling works, and foundries.

OLD-AGE PENSIONS

Insured persons who were affiliated to the former pension insurance scheme under the act of January 27, 1912, as subsequently amended, were entitled to a pension of 500 lei a month at the age of 65, even if they continued to work, provided they had completed 1,000 contribution weeks before their sixty-fifth birthday.

BENEFITS IN THE EVENT OF DEATH

On the death of a pensioner, his dependents were entitled to funeral benefits equal to 4 times his monthly pension, and to a reversionary pension equal to 40 percent of the deceased person's pension, in the case of the widow, and to 20 percent in the case of legitimate, legitimized, or adopted children (30 percent for orphans who had lost both parents). The widow's pension was awarded only if she was unable to earn her living; and an incapacitated dependent widower of an insured woman could also claim a pension. Orphans were to receive a pension until their fourteenth year. On the death of an insured person, who at the time of his death, had completed at least 400 contribution weeks, including at least 16 each year, or a total of 1,000 contribution weeks, the survivors were entitled to the same benefit as in the case of the death of a pensioner. Survivors' pensions were to be assessed on the basis of the pension to which the deceased person would have been entitled in case of invalidity.

Labor Conditions in Albania

ALBANIA is about the size of the State of Vermont, and possesses a similarly rugged, mountainous surface. Its population is somewhat in excess of a million, or about three times the population of Vermont.

Unsettled political conditions have undoubtedly had a deadening influence upon economic conditions in Albania. Held under the backward and repressive control of Turkey until 1912, Albania subsequently and successively has been a republic, a country partially occupied at times by various nations, a kingdom, a republic, an independent kingdom in name only under the Crown of Italy (1939), and at present (September 1943) apparently a German-dominated area.

The economic life of Albania is predominantly agricultural, the vast majority of the farmers being small proprietors, making a living by their own and their families' labor, with extremely primitive equipment. Although exact statistics on practically all subjects are almost entirely lacking for Albania, it is known that hired farm laborers are relatively quite few. Industrial wage earners are similarly few in number, manufacturing being on a small scale and largely concerned with the processing of farm products for domestic consumption.

As a result of these factors, the term "labor conditions," in its western industrial sense, applies to only a very small segment of Albanian life. This is no doubt the chief reason for the general absence of labor protective laws and administration—although a generally primitive type of political and social organization has also been in part responsible.

Measured by western standards, wages are known to be extremely low—equivalent to about 20 cents per day in United States currency in the days when the gold standard prevailed in both countries. There are no available data on prices and cost of living in Albania, by which the purchasing power of wages could be measured. Observers agree, however, that general living standards in Albania are probably the lowest in Europe.

Resumption of Government Operation of Coal Mines[1]

THE President on November 1, 1943, for the second time directed the Secretary of the Interior to take immediate possession of all coal mines in which a strike was in progress or was impending.

The previous order took effect on May 1, 1943. At intervals thereafter, as the Secretary decided that Federal operation was no longer required for the furtherance of the war effort, individual mines were returned to the owners. The last of the mines had been restored to private operation on October 12, 1943. This action was pursuant to the provisions of the War Labor Disputes Act of June 25, 1943, which stipulated that mines taken over by the Government were to be returned to their owners in no event later than 60 days after the restoration of the productive efficiency which prevailed before seizure.

After the mines had been returned to their owners, widespread stoppages occurred in the coal industry and strikes were threatened. The President, believing that such stoppages and strikes would obstruct the effective prosecution of the war, ordered the Secretary of the Interior to take possession of all mines thus affected.

In addition to reinvoking operational procedures of the May 1, 1943, order, the Secretary of the Interior was further directed to offer the workers' representatives a contract or contracts governing the terms and conditions of employment for the period of the operation of the mines by the Government, such contracts to be subject to the approval of the National War Labor Board.

Acting under that authorization, the Secretary of the Interior reached an agreement with the president of the United Mine Workers, by which the day-rate mine workers receive, paid at the basic rate, $1.50 for an extra full hour of work each day. The extra hour is obtained by adding to an assumed average travel time of 45 minutes per day the 15 minutes relinquished by the mine workers from the customary 30-minute lunch period. On November 5, 1943, this agreement was approved by the National War Labor Board, subject to clarification and resubmission as to (a) the provisions for payment of tonnage or piece workers and (b) the application of the provisions as to the pushing of cars in places where it is impracticable to deliver the cars to the working place other than by pushing. Clarification occurred on November 20, 1943, when the War Labor Board reduced the basic weekly wage for piece workers by about 31 cents below that of the agreement.

[1] Data are from Federal Register of November 3, 1943; Memorandum of Agreement between the Secretary of the Interior and the President of the United Mine Workers of America, November 3, 1943, and United States War Labor Board, Office of Information, Press release B-1096, November 5, 1943. Also see Monthly Labor Review, June 1943 (pp. 1093–1095), August 1943 (pp. 237–238, 290–294, 305–307).

Productivity of Labor and Industry

Recent Productivity Changes in Lead and Zinc Mining[1]

Summary

LEAD and zinc, which usually occur together in nature, have important wartime uses. Zinc, in fact, is one of the most critical of war materials, and although lead is relatively more plentiful than zinc, it is far from being overabundant. Nevertheless, despite added wartime demands, the domestic output of recoverable zinc in 1942 was about the same as in 1929, and lead production was only about three-fourths as high as in the earlier year. The United States must rely on foreign sources for part of the supply of both metals.

In terms of ore extracted per man-hour, productivity in lead and zinc mining has increased considerably during the past 15 years, and stood at a higher level in 1942 than before the war. However, the need for greater amounts of the metals has required the mining and processing of ore and tailings with a lower average metallic content, and consequently productivity in terms of recoverable lead and zinc has been declining since 1939.

Technological progress has been largely responsible for the long-run increase in productivity, but it has not been rapid. The most significant new developments have been in methods of loading, underground transportation of ore, and safety precautions. Such improvements made it possible, despite the declining metallic content of the ore, to extract in 1942 about 88 percent as much recoverable metal as in 1929, with only about 65 percent as many man-hours.

In all essential nonferrous-metal mining, the labor shortage is a major problem. After a sharp decline in employment during the summer of 1942, the Government took various measures to alleviate the difficulty, including the furloughing of men from the Army for work in the mines. No permanent solution was achieved, however, and in July 1943 plans were announced for a second furlough. Since the metal content of available ores will probably continue to decline, and since any significant increase in productivity during the war period is most unlikely, attainment of the desired production goals will depend primarily on the maintenance of an adequate labor force.

Wartime Efforts to Increase the Supply of Lead and Zinc

As noted, the main obstacle to increased production of the essential nonferrous metals has been the lack of necessary labor. Workers have been lost both to other industries and to the armed forces. The

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Productivity and Technological Development Division by Kenneth A. Middleton. Harry Brenner, formerly of this Division, contributed to the study in its early stages.

severity of the drain was first evident in the summer and fall of 1942, when the number of mine and mill workers in lead and zinc production dropped by more than 7 percent between June and October.

The serious nature of this trend was recognized immediately, and measures designed to halt the decline and replenish the labor force were instituted by various Government agencies. A "freeze" order applied to workers in nonferrous-metal mines throughout 12 Western States by the War Manpower Commission, in September 1942, made it more difficult for such workers to move to less-essential jobs. The War Production Board closed a number of gold mines in October 1942, with the object of making men available for the mining of other nonferrous metals. A majority of the workers in the industry benefited from wage increases approved by the War Labor Board in a series of decisions rendered since early in the fall of 1942. Special consideration was given to the industry by the Selective Service System. A still more drastic step was the furloughing of about 4,000 men from the Army for work in nonferrous-metal mines, beginning in October 1942.

These expedients met with varying degrees of success. The Army furlough had the most conspicuous immediate effect. Employment in lead and zinc mining and milling rose by about 1,300 between October and December of 1942. The relief was temporary, however, and another emergency developed in the summer of 1943. In July, the War Department announced that an additional 4,500 men would be released from the Army, chiefly for work in copper, zinc, and molybdenum mines. Only mines of highest productivity, in areas of severe labor shortage, are allowed to hire the workers made available by this second furlough.

Most problems affecting production are common to lead and zinc, since the ores of the two metals so frequently occur together. Nevertheless, certain mines and districts produce more of one metal, sometimes to the practical exclusion of the other. It is possible, therefore, to favor the production of either metal. Where there has been an alternative, expansion of zinc output has been encouraged, since zinc is the more critical material.

The chief wartime use of metallic zinc is in the manufacture of brass for ammunition shell cases. Galvanizing, the chief application of zinc in peacetime, continues to account for large quantities, but by late 1942 the requirement for this purpose had already been cut to less than half that of the corresponding period in 1941. Other important uses of metallic zinc are in die castings and rolled products. Zinc oxide, most of which is made directly from the ore, is used as a compounding agent in natural and synthetic rubber, in paints, primers, and marine coatings, and in pharmaceutical products. A substantial share of domestically produced zinc is exported to help supply the United Nations.

Facilities for mining zinc have been expanded, with the aid of extensive new equipment, notably in southwestern New Mexico and in Nevada. Zinc smelting and refining capacity has also been increased, partly with the aid of Government funds; in particular, facilities for production of high grades of zinc have been expanded to meet needs for cartridge brass and die castings. Large quantities of zinc have been saved by prohibiting its use in closures for glass containers and many

other civilian articles, as well as by the sharp curtailment of galvanizing.

The civilian uses of lead have been less drastically restricted by specific order than those of zinc, although they have been indirectly diminished through the reduction of nonwar building construction and in other ways. The chief peacetime use of lead is in storage batteries, and this application remains important in war. Much lead is now used in bullet cores, cable covering, paint pigments, protective coatings, and solder. There are limited possibilities of substituting lead for zinc, copper, tin, brass, aluminum, or rubber in such articles as pipe, tank linings, plumbing fittings, gaskets, washers, and die castings.

The Metals Reserve Co. pays premium prices for lead and zinc that is mined in excess of quotas set by a joint committee of the Office of Price Administration and the War Production Board. The purpose of such payments is to make profitable the working of low-content or relatively inaccessible ores and tailings without a general rise in the ceiling price. Revisions in February 1943 established three premium levels for zinc and two for lead.

Measures of Productivity

A brief account of the general character of the domestic lead and zinc mining industry may help to clarify the discussion of productivity and the factors affecting it. Lead and zinc are mined in three well-defined regions—Western, Central, and Eastern. Several Western States, notably Idaho, Utah, Montana, New Mexico, and Colorado, accounted for about half the national output of lead in 1942 and about two-fifths of the output of zinc.[2] The Central States produced nearly half the national total of recoverable lead in 1942 and about one-third of the total for zinc. Most of the zinc from the Central States is mined in the Tri-State district, which includes adjacent portions of Oklahoma, Kansas, and southwestern Missouri; the lead obtained in this district is relatively much less important. Southeastern Missouri, on the other hand, is a major lead-producing area, and its zinc output is small. Minor amounts of both metals, chiefly zinc, come from other Central States, including Wisconsin, Illinois, Kentucky, and Arkansas. More than one-fourth of the national zinc output for 1942 was contributed by the Eastern region, which includes the States of New Jersey, New York, Tennessee, and Virginia, in order of importance. Lead production in the Eastern region is comparatively insignificant. Large tonnages of low-content tailings are worked in the Central States. Geological conditions and grade of ore, and consequently mining methods and productivity, vary widely from mine to mine and district to district.

Annual indexes for the years 1935–42 are presented for the country as a whole in the accompanying table. The indexes of production refer to ores of which either zinc or lead is a chief metallic component, and to the recoverable lead and zinc in such ores. Tailings worked in the Central States and their metallic content are also included.

The output of recoverable metal per man-hour tended to move inversely to production during the period 1935–42, and declined 12 percent after 1939, as production expanded 23 percent. The level of productivity in 1942 was nevertheless about 35 percent higher than

[2] U. S. Bureau of Mines, monthly reports for 1942.

in 1929.[3] The index of ore production per man-hour, on the other hand, rose substantially after 1935 and was higher in 1942 than in 1939. The indexes of output of both ore and recoverable metals per wage earner were higher than the corresponding indexes of output per man-hour during the war period. The difference reflects increased working hours and more nearly continuous operation of the mines in these years.

The unit-labor-cost index for recoverable metals, given here for the years 1939–42, rose by more than half during this period. This increase reflects not only higher wage rates and greater overtime payments, but also a decline in productivity, for which the declining metallic content of ore and tailings is at least partly responsible. The rise in labor cost per unit of ore was less than one-third during the same period.

Productivity and Other Indexes for the Lead and Zinc Mining Industry, 1935–42 [1]

Year	Recoverable metals: Indexes (1939=100) of—							Ore: Indexes (1939=100) of—			
	Production	Employment	Man-hours	Output per—		Pay rolls	Unit labor cost	Production	Output per—		Unit labor cost
				Wage earner	Man-hour				Wage earner	Man-hour	
1935	86.3	.....	86.7	.....	99.5	.....	.....	76.9	.....	88.7	.....
1936	96.2	.....	102.7	.....	93.7	.....	.....	97.5	.....	94.9	.....
1937	110.4	.....	122.5	.....	90.1	.....	.....	118.1	.....	96.4	.....
1938	89.2	.....	91.4	.....	97.6	.....	.....	85.3	.....	93.3	.....
1939	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1940	113.4	113.8	115.9	99.6	97.8	123.0	108.5	116.3	102.2	100.3	105.8
1941	117.7	119.2	123.0	98.7	95.7	145.4	123.5	133.7	112.2	108.7	108.8
1942 [2]	123.3	125.0	139.8	98.6	88.2	192.6	156.2	146.2	117.0	104.6	131.7

[1] The index of production of recoverable metals is based on data for the recoverable metallic content of lead and zinc ores in all sections of the country and the metallic content of tailings treated in the Central States. The total quantities of lead and zinc were weighted by the average prices of the two metals in 1939, the base year. The index of ore production is based on mine production of lead and zinc ores for the country as a whole and tailings treated in the Central States. For both production series, statistics from regular annual reports of the U. S. Bureau of Mines were used for the years 1935–41. The 1942 indexes were obtained by the use of averages of Bureau of Mines monthly data for 1941 and 1942.

The index of man-hours for 1935–36 is based on data from the WPA National Research Project report: Production, Employment, and Productivity in the Mineral Extractive Industries, 1880–1938. The figures in that report were derived from a special Bureau of Mines tabulation. The index for the years 1937–39 is based on a similar tabulation and Bureau of Mines published figures on man-hours for the Central States. The segment for the years since 1939 was derived from Bureau of Labor Statistics data on employment and average weekly hours in the mining and milling of lead and zinc ores.

The indexes of employment and pay rolls are the published series of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.

[2] The 1942 indexes of production, productivity, and unit labor cost are subject to revision.

Factors Affecting Productivity

Differences in the behavior of the productivity indexes of recoverable metals and ore are accounted for by changes in the recoverable metallic content of ore and tailings worked. In years of low production, operations are confined to higher-grade sources of metal, but when peak output is sought, operations are extended to leaner deposits. Premium-price payments have encouraged the working of lower-grade ores and tailings during the present war; for example, they have made it profitable for the first time to treat tailings on a large scale in the Platteville district of Wisconsin.[4] A long-term factor depressing productivity is the near-exhaustion of some deposits, particularly in the Central States.

[3] Data for the period 1919–36 are presented in the WPA National Research Project report: Production, Employment, and Productivity in the Mineral Extractive Industries, 1880–1938 (Philadelphia, 1940), Appendix A (pp. 125–127).

[4] Engineering and Mining Journal (New York), June 1943 (p. 76): Rough Milling Followed by Central Milling Prolongs Life of Wisconsin Lead-Zinc District, by Ray E. Morgan.

The inclusion of tailings treated in the Central States significantly affects the index of ore production per man-hour. Computations indicate that a greater increase would be shown by this index if tailings were excluded. The decrease in 1938 and most of the rise in 1941 may be due to changes in the proportion of tailings in the total. The productivity index for recoverable metals, however, is affected but slightly, since the aggregate recoverable metal in tailings, as well as the additional labor involved in handling them, is relatively small.

The movement of productivity is, of course, a resultant of changes in individual mines using a variety of techniques. The highest output of ore per man-hour is attained in the Central States, where relatively simple open-stope methods are used almost exclusively, and where tailings, which require less labor for handling than the mining of ore, are an important source of supply. In New York and Tennessee, geological conditions permit the extensive use of open-stope methods; but in the important New Jersey district, much ore is derived by the more difficult top-slicing of pillars left between the original stopes of mines in which the relatively complex shrinkage and cut-and-fill techniques were formerly used. Thus, the output of ore per man-hour is considerably smaller in the Eastern than in the Central States. Eastern ores are so much richer on the average, however, that output of recoverable metals per man-hour is substantially higher than in the Central States. In the Western region, the character of the ore and wall rocks generally necessitates more complex mining methods than in other sections of the country. These methods, which are more costly in terms of time and labor than open-stope mining, include the square-set and stringer-set systems of stoping (in which a considerable amount of timbering is required), the cut-and-fill method, and shrinkage stoping. Output of ore per man-hour in the Western States was less than one-fourth as high as in the Central States in 1939. Productivity in terms of recoverable metals was also somewhat lower in the West, even though the lead and zinc ores mined there are on the average superior in metallic content to those of the Central States.[5]

The greatest relative increase in output of ore since 1939 has occurred in the West. In the Central States, the percentage increase of ore and tailings was only about half as much; in the East, the relative increase was much less than in either of the other areas. Some of the added production has come from relatively unproductive western mines and from small, usually inefficient workings, in which mechanized operation is not feasible. This factor has contributed to the decline in productivity of recoverable metals.

To some degree, technological changes have tended to offset the effect on productivity of the decline in grade of ore and other factors already mentioned.[6] This technical progress, however, has not been of a fundamental nature. During the past 15 years, the efficiency of handling ore underground has been improved by adoption of power scrapers, larger-capacity mine cars and locomotives, rope haulage systems, and, in a few instances, belt conveyors. In some districts,

[5] The comparisons of productivity among regions are based on data from the Census of Mineral Industries for 1939. If tailings are excluded, the margin of superiority of the Central States in output of ore per man-hour is considerably reduced. The ranks of the three regions in productivity according to estimates derived from Census data are the same as those determined from data for 1929–36 shown in the National Research Project report: Production, Employment, and Productivity in the Mineral Extractive Industries, 1880–1938 (Philadelphia, 1940), Appendix A (pp. 125–127).

[6] Background information for the discussion of lead and zinc mining methods was derived principally from publications of the U. S. Bureau of Mines, notably Bulletins 381 (1935) and 423 (1940), and from various trade journals for the industry, including Engineering and Mining, the Mining Congress Journal, and Mining and Metallurgy. The most recent material is cited specifically in other footnotes.

the use of mechanical loading devices has been extended considerably. Electricity has been used more extensively for light and for motive power. Working conditions have been improved and health hazards reduced through the use of artificial ventilation, mechanical respirators, and improved devices for detecting excessive dust in the atmosphere, such as the "midget impinger" adopted in the Tri-State district in 1936.

The small size and irregular or unpredictable character of many lead and zinc ore deposits often make it inexpedient to install expensive mechanical equipment. This is particularly true of the Tri-State district, which has in general been slow to replace hand shoveling and hand or animal tramming by mechanized methods. In the Picher field, however, geological conditions have permitted the use of scrapers for moving ore from the working face, rope haulage, and, to a limited degree, the operation of electric-battery locomotives and standard mine cars. Throughout the Tri-State district, the commonly used hoisting and hauling units are steel buckets, which have a capacity of about 1,400 pounds of ore each and are mounted on small trucks for movement to the shaft, where they are hooked to a free-swinging hoist rope, rapidly raised to the surface, emptied, and then returned to the bottom. In experimental trial, 2-ton skips have been used in an enlarged shaft in conjunction with a storage hopper at the bottom, belt conveyors, and scrapers; results indicate that complete mechanization of this kind might in some cases make profitable the mining of unusually low grades of ore.

Late in 1941, when the shortage of skilled shovelers in the Tri-State district threatened to reduce by about 50 percent the amount of ore shoveled per man, small mechanical shovel loaders powered by compressed air were introduced. The number in use has gradually increased since then. Prefabricated track switches are ordinarily used to expedite handling of the mine cars, which must be placed directly behind the shoveler for loading. One shovel loader, requiring two men for its operation, is said to be equivalent to five men working by hand, but hand shoveling is still required for the final cleaning up of the drift.[7] Another recent development is the use of "geophones," which detect otherwise inaudible warning noises in the earth and thus permit the safe removal of large pillars of relatively high-grade ore originally believed necessary to support the ceiling of the stope.

The regularity and magnitude of the beds of lead ore in southeastern Missouri are conducive to mechanization. By 1935 hand shoveling had been practically replaced by electric tractor shovels, which were later supplanted to some extent by scrapers and small shovel loaders of the type more recently adopted in the Tri-State district. An electric-trolley railway system is used for underground transportation of ore.

In some of the larger mines of eastern Tennessee, the extraction of low-grade zinc ores has been made feasible by the highly mechanized "mill hole" system of open-stope mining, in which the excavations radiate from a central raise or mill hole leading to the haulage level. Ore is moved from the working faces to the mill hole by gravity, aided where necessary by scrapers. Electric-trolley trains take the ore from the mill hole to storage pockets.

[7] Mining Congress Journal (Washington), November 1942 (p. 18).

Expansion of operations in the deep zinc mines of Nevada and New Mexico has been aided by the use of diamond drills and mechanical loaders in underground exploration and development. Several small electric and compressed-air slushers have been placed in operation recently for moving ore from the working face. In some stopes, however, ore can be removed only by hand slushers and wheelbarrows. At Pioche, Nev., economical operation has been aided since 1936 by the availability of power from Boulder Dam. Storage-battery locomotives and side-dumping cars are used in the underground ore trains. Special problems of deep-level ventilation and water removal have had to be dealt with.[8]

Since the entry of the United States into the war, certain labor-supply problems have had some influence on productivity. It has been increasingly difficult to maintain the size of the labor force. Absenteeism and labor turnover have been greater than previously. Available new men, even some of those released in the first Army furlough, have lacked experience and physical stamina for arduous mine work. Labor shortages have been particularly severe in the West and in the Tri-State district. As noted above, some effort has been made to meet this difficulty by increased mechanization, which can at best be only a partial solution, since the extension of mechanized methods is limited by the physical conditions of mining, by shortages of materials, and by financial considerations. Under the circumstances, it seems that the maintenance of ore output (exclusive of tailings) per man-hour above the 1939 level is a creditable achievement.

Outlook for the Industry

For the duration of the war, there will doubtless be a continuous demand for maximum output of lead and zinc, particularly the latter, but there is no indication that the shortage of labor will be significantly relieved, or that it will be offset appreciably by increased mechanization. Though some of the men released in the second Army furlough are being sent to zinc mines where they may contribute most to production, the labor and production problem will still be far from solved.

Output of recoverable metal per man and per man-hour, which has been declining, cannot be expected to reverse its direction while the war continues. Reopening of small workings and extension of production in existing mines will mean a reduction in the average metallic content of the ore. Productivity in terms of the ore itself tends to be reduced by the entry of small, usually inefficient properties and by the employment of inexperienced labor. Under such conditions, there can scarcely be much increase in domestic production of recoverable zinc or lead. Although there may be more margin for expanding the output of the latter metal, zinc is currently being favored as far as possible in the allocation of labor.

It is difficult to anticipate the position of the industry after the war. At least a temporary decline in requirements for lead and zinc will occur. Since the least-productive operations would, in this event, be curtailed most, the reduction of employment will be relatively greater than the reduction of output.

[8] Engineering and Mining Journal, August 1943 (p. 78): A Major Zinc Producing District Now in the Making in Southwest New Mexico, by John B. Huttl. Mining Congress Journal, April 1943 (p. 18): A Growing Zinc Supply From Pioche, Nevada, by R. L. Dean.

Nondiscrimination Clause in Government Contracts is Mandatory

PROVISIONS making it obligatory for contractors for United States Government work not to discriminate against employees or applicants because of race, creed, color, or national origin are mandatory and should be inserted in all Government contracts, according to a letter from the President to the Attorney General.[1] An opinion of the Comptroller General, on October 7, held that the obligation imposed by Executive Order No. 9346 of May 27, 1943,[2] upon contracting agencies to include a nondiscrimination clause in each contract which they award, was merely directive, not mandatory. The President's Committee on Fair Employment Practice thereupon asked for an interpretation of the scope and meaning of that order.

The text of the President's letter, dated November 5, 1943, follows:

MY DEAR MR. ATTORNEY GENERAL:

You have brought to my attention the Comptroller General's opinion holding that Executive Order 9346 is directive only and not mandatory in requiring insertion in all Government contracts of a provision obligating the contractor not to discriminate against any employee or applicant for employment on account of race, creed, color, or national origin; and requiring the contractor to include similar contractual provisions in all subcontracts.

There is no need for me to reiterate the fundamental principles underlying the promulgation of the Executive order, namely, that the prosecution of the war demands that we utilize fully all available manpower and that the discrimination by war industries against persons for any of the reasons named in the order is detrimental to the prosecution of the war and is opposed to our national democratic purposes.

I realize the hesitancy of the Comptroller General to withhold payment on Government contracts in which these provisions have not been included where there is doubt as to whether the order is mandatory. I therefore wish to make it perfectly clear that these provisions are mandatory and should be incorporated in all Government contracts. The order should be so construed by all Government contracting agencies.

FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT.

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[1] U. S. Office of War Information, Press release N-702, Washington, D. C.

[2] Reaffirming the policy of the United States that "there shall be no discrimination in the employment of any person in war industries or in Government by reason of race, creed, color, or national origin." (See Federal Register, Washington, May 29, 1943, pp. 7183-7184.)

Recent War Manpower Instructions on Labor

Recruitment of Labor

ON October 7, 1943, the War Manpower Commission issued Field Instruction No. 41, concerning labor problems in the meat-packing industry. That industry has needed additional workers, and with the lifting of slaughter quota restrictions for the fall and winter months, the labor problem is expected to be intensified. The Commission therefore instructed its representatives to contact every meat-packing plant for the purpose of securing as quickly as possible complete information on the current and anticipated labor requirements, in order that every possible assistance may be given.

All regional manpower directors were requested to submit a summary of any conditions reported by the field staff to be preventing adequate recruitment for the meat-packing industry.

Placement policies in event of labor dispute.—Superseding a policy statement dated May 1, 1942, the War Manpower Commission, on October 21, 1943, issued a new statement of policy to govern referrals to jobs vacant because of labor disputes, and the issuance of statements of availability to workers unemployed because of such disputes.[1]

This new policy states that local employment offices of the U. S. Employment Service are to make no referral, except in accordance with specific instructions to do so from the regional manpower director, which will aid directly or indirectly in filling a job (*a*) that is vacant because the former occupant is on strike or is being locked out in the course of a labor dispute or (*b*) the filling of which is an issue in a labor dispute.

The regional manpower director may direct that referrals be made to such jobs, upon the following conditions: The director is to ascertain from the Government agency concerned with the adjustment of the labor dispute whether that agency believes that the making of referrals to such jobs will interfere with the settlement of the dispute. The director is to submit this information to his management-labor committee, and to request the advice of that committee as to what action should be taken. After considering all the advice so secured, the director is to determine whether the making of referrals is in the best interest of the war effort, and to issue the proper instructions to the local offices concerned.

No statement of availability is to be issued to, and no referral is to be made of, a worker who is not working because he is participating in or interested in a strike or a lockout, except in accordance with specific instructions to do so from the regional manpower director, given after consultation with the Government agency concerned in the adjustment of the labor dispute and with the management-labor committee.

Selective Service registrants in seasonal occupations.—Because of the importance of seasonal occupations, registrants employed in such occupations in war production or in support of the war effort, if found to be necessary men, are to be deferred.[2] They are to be permitted to move from one locality to another for the purpose of follow-

[1] U. S. War Manpower Commission, Field Instruction No. 72, October 21, 1943.
[2] U. S. Selective Service System, National Headquarters, Local Board Memorandum No. 115-D, October 2, 1943.

ing local seasons, and should be considered for occupational classification, irrespective of such movement, if they continue to qualify as necessary men in their seasonal occupations.

Registrants so deferred may be continued in a deferred classification during the off season if they remain engaged in their seasonal occupations for a period of not less than 8 months of the year, if they become engaged during the off season in some other occupation in war production or in support of the war effort, and if, upon the reopening of the season in which they may pursue their normal seasonal occupations, they return to the seasonal occupations that constituted the basis for their original deferment and resume their status as necessary men therein.

Help-wanted advertising by employers.—On October 1, 1943, the War Manpower Commission outlined its policy regarding advertising by employers for workers, in the daily newspapers.[3] The Commission recognized that such advertising, when carefully utilized in accordance with established policies, can be used to advantage in the recruitment of workers. At the same time, advertising without regard to programs directed to the solution of manpower problems may have an extremely disruptive effect upon the labor market in particular areas.

The announced policy of the Commission is to enlist the support of newspaper publishers, and effect an agreement with them (*a*) to withhold from publication advertisements which the newspapers and the Commission agree are detrimental to the war program in the area; (*b*) that advertisements directing applicants in the Employment Service are to be cleared in advance with the local employment office by the advertiser; (*c*) that they shall include a statement that persons now employed full time at their maximum skills in essential industries (and in some areas, agriculture) should not apply; (*d*) to ascertain in advance that wage rates quoted in advertisements contain no rate in question by the Wage Stabilization Division of the National War Labor Board or not approved by the Board; and (*e*) to seek the opinion of the Commission, through the Employment Service, regarding advertisements wherein there is a doubt as to their probable effects on the war program in the area.

Extension of 48-Hour Workweek

Current labor markets, the Manpower Commission recently pointed out, require the fullest exploitation of every measure to reduce labor demand and obtain more effective utilization of labor.[4] One measure not yet fully used is the application of the minimum wartime workweek to those areas and industries in which a labor shortage exists or from which workers could be released for employment in more critical areas and industries.

The minimum wartime workweek of 48 hours was put into effect by regulations, issued in February 1943, which applied to certain enterprises in 32 local labor-shortage areas and nationally to the lumber and nonferrous-metal-mining industries.[5] The Commission's Field Instruction No. 60, of October 13, 1943, called for application of the 48-hour workweek to all labor-shortage areas. In other areas, before

[3] U. S. War Manpower Commission, Field Instruction No. 49, October 1, 1943.
[4] Idem, Field Instruction No. 60, October 13, 1943.
[5] See Monthly Labor Review, April 1943 (pp. 666–668).

deciding whether the wartime workweek should be applied, the regional manpower director is to consult with the regional management-labor committee.

Policy for Regional Manpower Directors Regarding Wage Increases [6]

The Commission on October 12, 1943, advised its regional manpower directors that WMC officials must not issue statements of availability because an applicant is employed at wages below a level established or approved by the War Labor Board, until it is certain that the level or minimum bracket has been officially established.

War Manpower Commission officials are not to support any employer in requesting a wage increase when the increase would tend to restrain the transfer of workers to other activities in which workers are more urgently needed for effective prosecution of the war. Under no circumstances are WMC officials to indicate to employers engaged in less-essential activities (which have not been declared "locally needed") that wage increases will assist them in retaining or recruiting workers and that they should apply to the War Labor Board for wage increases. Neither are WMC officials to suggest to employers engaged in less-essential activities that application to the War Labor Board for wage increases will aid them in retaining or recruiting workers.

Reemployment Program of Selective Service System

ON SEPTEMBER 29, 1943, the Reemployment Division of the Selective Service System made known its reemployment program. Its policies apply to all honorably discharged veterans, male and female, whether inducted, enlisted, or commissioned subsequent to May 1, 1940, and to men discharged from the Merchant Marine pursuant to Public Law 87 of the 78th Congress.

This program, contained in a recent bulletin of the Selective Service System,[7] has been prepared to cover the work of the Reemployment Division under the new procedure covering discharges from the Army. This procedure is to go into effect about January 1, 1944, and is expected to be followed shortly by adoption of a somewhat similar procedure by the Navy and Marine Corps.

Program decentralized.—The Reemployment Division has been and is operating under a decentralized plan, in which operations are at the local level, and planning and interpretations of the Selective Training and Service Act are at the national level. Reemployment Committeemen attached to each local board serve as the agents and counsellors of the veterans, with direct responsibility to restore them to their old jobs and serve as liaison agents and contact men with other governmental agencies which provide specific services for the veterans.

These other governmental agencies include the following: The Veterans' Administration; the U. S. Employment Service; the Veterans' Employment Service (responsible for the employment interests of all veterans registered with the U. S. Employment Service, except

[6] U. S. War Manpower Commission, Field Instruction No. 52, October 21, 1943.
[7] U. S. Selective Service System, National Headquarters, Reemployment Bulletin No. 1, Washington, September 29, 1943.

those veterans who desire reemployment in their old jobs); the Vocational Rehabilitation and Training Division of the Federal Security Agency; the Red Cross; the Civil Service Commission; the Army Emergency Relief; and the U. S. Armed Forces Institute, Madison, Wis.

Clearing-house committees.—Additional reemployment aid is to be provided through the National Clearing House Committee which is now organizing State and local clearing-house committees. Fifteen national organizations constitute the national body and most of them will be included in the State organizations. These committees are autonomous, and no government official is eligible for membership except in ex-officio or liaison capacity as may be desired under certain local conditions.

The National Clearing House Committee consists of representatives from each of the following organizations.

American Farm Bureau Federation.
American Federation of Labor.
American Iron and Steel Institute.
American Legion.
Congress of Industrial Organizations.
Disabled American Veterans.
Kiwanis International.
Lions International.
National Association of Manufacturers.
National Exchange Club.
National Grange.
Railway Labor Executives Association (invited—acceptance pending).
Rotary International.
United States Chamber of Commerce.
United States Junior Chamber of Commerce.
Veterans of Foreign Wars.

State clearing-house committees will consist initially of representatives from the organizations of the National Committee. These State bodies are to establish liaison with State headquarters of Selective Service, and are to organize the local clearing-house committees.

These local committees are to be organized in all the cities and towns of the Nation. They are to handle, as community problems, all reemployment cases that cannot be adjusted by the reemployment committeemen and are to make available the combined resources of the community in supporting the efforts of the Reemployment Committeemen and the U. S. Employment Service.

Construction Wage Adjustment Board Reconstituted [1]

THE Secretary of Labor, on October 13, 1943, reconstituted the Wage Adjustment Board for the Building Construction Industry. As originally established, the jurisdiction of the Board had been limited to construction work done for or financed by the United States. At present, in addition to these original duties, the Board is also given jurisdiction over labor disputes and over voluntary wage and salary adjustments in the private construction industry. These additional functions were delegated to the Board by the War Labor Board, which formerly exercised jurisdiction over the private construction industry.

[1] Data are from Federal Register, October 15, 1943: U. S. Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, Press release B–1041, October 15, 1943.

The Board, which previously consisted of a public chairman and representatives of various Government contracting agencies and labor, will hereafter be a 9-member tripartite agency, with 3 representatives each of the public, industry, and labor.

Special Board to Reconsider Wages of Nonoperating Railroad Employees[1]

THE President, on October 16, 1943, created a Special Emergency Board to reconsider the claims of the nonoperating railroad employees for wage adjustments. In addition, this Board is to recommend "such wage adjustments which should be made," within the limitations of the stabilization program, to the President.

Recommendations of this Board in regard to proposed wage and salary payments are to become effective 15 days after the Board's report has been filed, "unless and except to the extent the Economic Stabilization Director otherwise directs."

The Special Emergency Board, on November 4, 1943, recommended for the nonoperating railroad employees hourly increases ranging from 10 cents for all wages less than 47 cents per hour to 4 cents for all those receiving 97 cents and over per hour. On November 8, 1943, the Director of Economic Stabilization stated that he would not disapprove these recommendations, and that under the Executive order creating this Board these recommendations were to become effective on November 19, 1943. At the time this issue of the Review went to press (December 1) a resolution was being considered by Congress providing for an 8-cent increase for nonoperating railroad employees as provided in the findings of the first Emergency Board.

Canadian Compulsory Employment Transfer Orders, 1943[2]

COMPULSORY employment transfer orders were made applicable to all males in Canada between the ages of 16 and 40 years under the terms of an order-in-council of August 13, 1943 (P. C. 6433). Earlier orders applying to only two classes of men—namely, those designated for military call and boys 16, 17, and 18 years old—were superseded. Section 210 of the National Selective Service Civilian Regulations was revoked and the following provision was substituted:

> The Minister may, by order, forbid any employer or group or class of employers to retain in employment after a specified date any male person (or group or class of male persons) who has attained or who later attains his sixteenth birthday and who has not attained his forty-first birthday, unless such person has presented to the employer a permit in prescribed form issued by a Selective Service Officer; or may require any employer, or group or class of employers, to terminate, at such time and in such manner as he may specify, the employment of any such person or group or class of such persons.

On August 25, 1943, the sixth order was announced, whereby men in the new age group (16 to 40 years) became subject to compulsory

[1] Federal Register, October 19, 1943 (p. 14105).
[2] Canada, Department of Labor, The Labor Gazette, September 1943; and report from United States Legation at Ottawa (No. 162).

transfer. The sixth order consolidates the occupations listed in previous orders from which men may be transferred. It does not change the occupational coverage, which is classified by 5 main groups. In group A are listed any occupations in or associated with the manufacture of candy; cigars; curtains; fur garments; handbags; hats; household furniture; frames for mirrors, etc.; monuments, etc.; neckties, scarfs, etc.; pens; jewelry; perfumes; pianos; furniture for public buildings; rattan wares; soda fountains; and feathers. Group B includes wholesale activities, with specified exceptions. Group C lists a number of occupations in any industry, such as cleaners, domestic servants, and waiters. In group D are occupations associated with art, dyeing and cleaning, distilling alcohol for beverages, entertainment, florist enterprises, raising livestock such as race horses, leather currying, etc., costume renting, fur storage, etc., and distilling and refining of natural essential oils. The occupations in group E are those associated with the retail trades—all retail stores, restaurants, taverns, etc., and the retail sale of candy, tobacco, newspapers, etc., motor vehicles, motor-vehicle accessories, sporting goods, and musical instruments.

In a statement on the amendment to the regulations, the Minister of Labor commented that he intended to proceed with caution, giving careful consideration to the conditions surrounding the employment of men liable to compulsory transfer and that the task, which involves a great deal of careful administration, would be carried out as rapidly as possible.

At least for the present, methods employed in assigning ex-servicemen and men with domestic responsibilities to high-priority positions will be less drastic than those employed for other men who are subject to transfer. Ex-servicemen are to be persuaded, rather than compelled, to transfer from less to more essential employment. Men with domestic responsibilities will not be required to change their residence when a move would entail hardship; however, they will be available for transfer within industry in areas in which they reside.

The existing employment status of practically all the men in the age group 16 to 40 years will be examined to ascertain whether their usefulness can be enhanced by moving them to higher-priority work, wherever practical.

On September 8, it became illegal for any employer to continue to employ any man covered by the compulsory transfer order, unless a special permit was obtained from the National Selective Service. Employees affected were required to register with the nearest Employment and Selective Service office not later than September 8, and to be available for transfer to higher-priority work.

Extension of Military Family Allowances in Germany

PROVISIONS concerning the assistance and care of German soldiers and their widows were included in the legislation of August 26, 1938, and July 6, 1939, according to a statement in the Deutsche Zeitung in Norwegen of September 13, 1943. The basis of these grants, the same source states, is the principle that the families of the soldiers at the front must be able to continue their present standard of living

and that war invalids or soldiers' widows must not suffer a reduction from their former social level. The classification of persons eligible for assistance is much broader than that in effect in World War I.[1]

At present, in addition to provision for the wife and children of the serviceman, allowances are also granted to stepchildren, adopted children, and illegitimate children, and to other relatives who had been wholly dependent for subsistence upon his earnings.

Family allowances are now paid not only to the men in the Army and in the Reich Labor Service, but also to members of the Emergency Service, Customs Border Guards, the Post Office and Railway Guards, the Air Protection Service, the German Red Cross, and to all other organizations in military service.

The following example shows the allowances paid to a married conscript (a skilled worker—a turner) with two children of school age.

	Reichsmarks per month
Basic income:	
Maximum limit	250.00
Less 15 percent for personal needs	37.50
Maximum limit of family allowance	212.50
Present computation of allowance:	
Fixed rate	96.00
Children's allowance, 2 × RM 26.00	52.00
Rental allowance	60.00
Total family allowance	208.00

The difference between the actual family allowance thus computed and the maximum limit is RM 4.50, which may be voluntarily granted by the employer, and it is stated that the great majority of the German employers do so.

The families of soldiers in the lowest income group receive comparatively more favorable treatment, as shown by the following case of an unskilled married worker with two children of school age:

	Reichsmarks per month
Basic income:	
Maximum limit	160.00
Less 15 percent for personal needs	24.00
Maximum limit of family allowance	136.00
Present computation:	
Fixed rate	60.00
Children's allowance 2 × RM 26.00	52.00
Rental allowance	35.00
Total family allowance	147.00

As the total allowance may not be more than 85 percent of the basic income, a reduction of RM 11.00 must be made in the computed allowance in this case.

In case of enterprises that have been shut down, the voluntary grants formerly made by such enterprises are now being paid by a special organization, Stillegungshilfe der Wirtschaft.

[1] Data are from report of Herschel V. Johnson, U. S. Ambassador at Stockholm.

Union Agreements in the Aluminum-Fabrication Industry[1]

Summary

THE aluminum-fabrication industry as covered in this report is composed of those establishments which normally manufacture aluminum kitchen, hospital, and household ware (except electrical appliances) and aluminum products such as plates, sheets, rods, tubing, pipe, wire, castings, bars, and airplane and engine parts. It does not include the mining of bauxite (the ore from which aluminum is obtained), the production of alumina from bauxite, the reduction of alumina to aluminum, nor the production of aluminum foil.[2] Aluminum-fabrication establishments are scattered throughout the country, but the major concentrations of employment are in Wisconsin (where a number of independent aluminum cooking-utensil plants are situated), Indiana, Illinois, Ohio, and Michigan; in Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and New York; in California, Arizona and Washington; and in Alabama and Tennessee.

This report discusses the provisions of 20 agreements which cover approximately 85 percent of the production workers in the industry.[3] Ninety percent of the workers covered by these agreements work under the terms of nine agreements signed by the three major companies manufacturing aluminum products—the Aluminum Co. of America, which employs a large majority of the workers, the Bohn Aluminum & Brass Corporation, and the Reynolds Metals Co., including its subsidiary, the Reynolds Alloys Co. The aluminum-fabrication plants covered by each of the agreements with the three major companies and the union with which the agreements have been signed are shown in the table following.

Most of the 20 agreements discussed in this report are in effect currently (October 1943); a few have expired during recent months and are at present subject to renegotiation. Almost all the agreements were negotiated for initial periods of 1 year or 18 months, to extend indefinitely thereafter until 30 days' notice of intention to amend is given by either party. Two permit changes only on 30

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Industrial Relations Division by Grace Milgram.

[2] The industry definitions used here correspond to those for the 1939 Census of Manufactures classifications: "Aluminum ware, kitchen, hospital, and household (except electrical appliances)" and "aluminum products (including rolling and drawing and extruding), not elsewhere classified." A considerable number of establishments, particularly within the branch of the industry which produces kitchen and household ware, are now producing wartime rather than their customary peacetime products. They are, however, considered part of the industry for purposes of this study. Plants which were manufacturing other products in 1939 but have now converted to the production of aluminum products are excluded from this study.

[3] Some of these agreements also cover other plants which are not in the aluminum-fabrication industry, but employment in these plants has not been included in estimating the proportion of workers under agreement. Agreements covering only groups of craft workers also have not been included in the discussion. The agreements which the Aluminum Co. of America has signed with five unions in its various plants follow a standard form with almost identical terms. However, they do not include provisions on certain matters, and these particular items have been negotiated by the management and union at each separate plant. Since copies of these supplementary agreements are not on file with the Bureau of Labor Statistics, their provisions are not discussed in this report.

days' notice at the time of expiration or annually thereafter. Only one is automatically extended for the duration of the war.

Plants Covered by Agreements between Three Major Aluminum-Fabricating Companies and Specified Unions

Company	Union	Location
Aluminum Co. of America	Aluminum Workers of America (C. I. O.).	New Kensington, Pa.;[1] Alcoa, Tenn.; Detroit, Mich.; Edgewater, N. J.; Bridgeport and Fairfield, Conn.; Newark, Ohio; Cressona, Pa.; and Trentwood, Wash.
	Aluminum Council (A. F. of L.)	Massena, N. Y.;[2] La Fayette, Ind.
	Mine, Mill and Smelter Workers (C. I. O.).	Cleveland, Ohio.
	do	Garwood, N. J.
	United Automobile Workers (C. I. O.).	Vernon, Calif.
	United Mine Workers, District 50 (Ind.).	Buffalo, N. Y.
Bohn Aluminum & Brass Corporation.	United Automobile Workers (C. I. O.).	Detroit, Mich.
Reynolds Metals Co	Aluminum Council (A. F. of L.)	Louisville, Ky.
Reynolds Alloys Co	do	Listerhill, Ala.

[1] This agreement also covers plants at Badin (N. C.), Bauxite (Ark.), Drury (Ark.), Hurricane Creek (Ark.), Jones Mill (Ark.), Mead (Wash.), and Troutdale (Oreg.), which are not engaged in aluminum fabrication.

[2] This agreement also covers plants at East St. Louis (Ill.), Mobile (Ala.), Baton Rouge (La.), Maspeth (N. Y.), and Burlington (N. J.), which are not engaged in aluminum fabrication.

[3] This agreement also covers plants in New York City and Glendale (N. Y.), Richmond (Va.), Harrison (N. J.), Chicago (Ill.), and St. Louis (Mo.), which are not engaged in aluminum fabrication.

Development of Collective Bargaining

Approximately 90 percent of the workers within the aluminum industry are working under agreements with various international unions.[4] Almost half of the organized workers are covered by agreements with the Aluminum Workers of America (C. I. O.), and approximately a fifth with the National Council of Aluminum Workers (A. F. of L.). The United Automobile Workers (C. I. O.) and the Mine, Mill and Smelter Workers (C. I. O.)[5] each represent about a sixth of the workers in the industry. In addition, District 50 of the United Mine Workers (independent), the International Association of Machinists (A. F. of L.) and the Molders and Foundry Workers (A. F. of L.) represent some of the workers.

The first national organization of aluminum workers was formed in 1934 when several federal labor unions, affiliated directly with the American Federation of Labor, united into the National Council of Aluminum Workers. A strike conducted by the council in that year against the Aluminum Co. of America was settled when the company issued a unilateral statement of an "agreement" to the effect that it was willing to meet with "any of its employees or representatives of any of its employees" to discuss wages, hours, and working conditions, but that "no contract or agreement shall be entered into between the company and any employee or group of employees or their representative or representatives that will, in any way, conflict with, or supersede, this understanding."

Two years later the Aluminum Co. of America signed its first bilateral agreement with the Aluminum Council, covering six plants, of which four—those at New Kensington and Logan's Ferry, Pa.,

[4] Organizations covering employees of single plants are not included in this study.

[5] The National Association of Die Casting Workers (C. I. O.), which holds bargaining rights in some aluminum plants, affiliated with the Mine, Mill and Smelter Workers in 1942.

Massena, N. Y., and Alcoa, Tenn.—are in the aluminum-fabrication industry. This agreement granted bargaining rights to the union, for its members only.

In 1937, several of the locals left the council to organize the Aluminum Workers of America (C. I. O.). Subsequent to the elections conducted by the National Labor Relations Board, the Aluminum Co. of America and the Aluminum Workers signed an agreement (1939) covering four plants, a fifth plant being added in 1940. These were situated at New Kensington and Logan's Ferry, Pa., Alcoa, Tenn., Detroit, Mich., and Edgewater, N. J. The A. F. of L. council maintained its bargaining rights at the Massena (N. Y.) plant. The National Association of Die Casting Workers (C. I. O.) won recognition about the same time in the Garwood (N. J.) plant and later in Cleveland. During the next few years, bargaining rights were won at additional Aluminum Co. plants by both the Aluminum Workers and the Aluminum Council. District 50 of the United Mine Workers gained recognition in Buffalo and the United Automobile Workers (C. I. O.) in Vernon, Calif.

In the meantime the Bohn Aluminum & Brass Corporation signed an agreement in 1937 with the United Automobile Workers (C. I. O.). Later, the Reynolds Metals Co. and Reynolds Alloys Co. signed agreements with the Aluminum Council and, for maintenance workers, with several American Federation of Labor craft unions.

Provisions of Agreements in Effect October 1943

UNION STATUS

Types of recognition.—A degree of union recognition beyond the grant of sole bargaining rights for all covered employees is provided in the 9 agreements with the major aluminum companies. All of the agreements of the Aluminum Co. of America contain a maintenance-of-membership clause, providing that all employees who are or who become members of the union must remain members for the duration of the agreement. Maintenance of membership in these agreements, except those of the Aluminum Council and of the Mine, Mill and Smelter Workers at Cleveland, resulted from a War Labor Board order of August 18, 1942, which provided the customary 15-day "escape" period during which employees could resign from the union. At that time, the Board refused to award maintenance of membership to the union in the Cleveland plant because of "the unsatisfactory relations of the company and the union." However, on July 9, 1943, the Board ordered the standard membership-maintenance clause incorporated in the agreement covering this plant. The Aluminum Council was not party to the case before the Board and negotiated a membership-maintenance provision as a supplement to an existing agreement, which took effect in December 1942.

The agreements which cover the Bohn Aluminum & Brass Corporation and the Reynolds Alloys and Reynolds Metals Companies establish union shops, under which the company may hire anyone it chooses, but all workers must join the union within a specified time and remain members in good standing, in order to keep their employment. At the Bohn plants new employees must join the union "10 days after they shall have acquired seniority," seniority being acquired

after a probationary period of 30 days. At the Reynolds plants, they must join within 30 days after being hired.

Of the workers covered by the other 11 agreements, approximately half, working under 3 agreements, are employed in accordance with maintenance-of-membership provisions similar to those covering the Aluminum Co. of America. One of these agreements establishes machinery by which a member "who feels that the union has done him or her an injustice" can appeal to a joint union-company committee and from there to an impartial umpire for permission to withdraw from membership. In 4 of the 11 agreements covering the smaller plants, provisions are made for union- or closed-shop conditions. The 4 remaining agreements grant sole bargaining rights only, allow the union to bargain for members only, or do not contain a formal recognition clause. In two of these cases the union has never exercised its right to ask for an election by the National Labor Relations Board, but in practice, the union exercises sole bargaining rights.

Coverage.—In all the Aluminum Co. agreements, bargaining rights are granted only for those workers who are part of the bargaining unit as established by the National Labor Relations Board in each plant. The Bohn agreement specifically excludes from membership in the union, and presumably from the bargaining unit, "direct representatives of management," including executives, superintendents, foremen, assistant foremen, etc. The Reynolds agreements cover workers paid by the hour and such salaried employees as are eligible for membership in the unions signing the agreement. The Reynolds Metals agreement provides further that disputes over the question of which salaried workers are covered shall be decided in accordance with the regular grievance procedure. The smaller companies commonly exclude supervisory and administrative workers from the bargaining unit. In a few cases, watchmen and clerical workers are specifically excluded. One agreement also specifically excludes laboratory workers.

Activities affecting union status.—The Aluminum Co. and Bohn agreements and the agreements of five of the smaller companies contain clauses specifically prohibiting company discrimination against any employee because of membership, and in some instances nonmembership, in the union. The former agreements and two of the latter also forbid the union to "coerce" employees into membership. Four agreements, including that of the Bohn Corporation, forbid such union activity as solicitation of membership or collection of dues on company time; only one contains a prohibition against such activity on company property. The agreements of the Aluminum Co. (except the one with the Aluminum Council) and of the Reynolds Companies and the agreement of one smaller company make provision for posting union notices in the plants either on general company bulletin boards or on special boards used by the union only.

Check-off.—Most of the agreements make no provision for the deduction of union dues by the company. Of the three major companies, only the Reynolds agreements provide for a check-off of dues from wages. Under their terms, the company deducts the dues and initiation fees of those employees who individually authorize such deductions in writing. The company remits these deductions to the union, "less 2 percent, to be retained by the company to cover clerical handling expenses."

Four of the smaller companies also provide for a check-off, two on authorization by individual employees and two automatically for all employees. In three of these agreements, the check-off is coupled with either a union or a closed shop. In the fourth, provision for a voluntary check-off is made in an agreement which does not contain a formal recognition clause.

WAGE PROVISIONS

Of the larger companies, only the Reynolds Metals Co. agreement specifies wage rates, and it provides for hourly rates only. None of the agreements of the other large companies contains any indication of whether time or incentive rates prevail. In addition to minimum rates of 62 cents per hour for men and 57 cents per hour for women, the Reynolds Metals agreement provides a regular schedule of increases over periods ranging from 3 to 30 months for specified jobs, rising in the lowest group to a maximum of 66 cents and in the highest group to 93 cents.

Most of the smaller agreements refer to hourly rates of pay, and four mention both time and piece rates. Five specify minimum hourly rates only, while one contains an occupational listing in which "laborers" and "learners" receive the lowest rate. One agreement establishes minimum rates of 80 cents per hour for men and 64 cents for women, but allows hiring rates 20 cents below these amounts and requires 1 year of service to receive the minima. Another provides a 65-cent minimum for men and a 50-cent minimum for women, specifying no separate hiring rates. The other three agreements provide general plant minima ranging from 50 cents, without separate hiring rates, to 60 cents after 60 days.

Equal pay for women.—Five of the 20 agreements specifically refer to rates for women. The agreement of the Reynolds Metals Co. and a supplementary agreement signed by the Aluminum Co. of America with the Aluminum Workers, provide equal rates to women who perform "substantially the same work" as men. Both companies normally distinguish between men's and women's occupations, the latter having lower rates. Three other agreements—one establishing lower minimum rates for women than for men and two not specifying any rates—also provide that women shall be paid equal rates with men when they do "substantially the same work."

Wage adjustments.—The agreements of the Aluminum Co. of America are somewhat unusual in stating that "the company is willing at all times to discuss and negotiate any matter pertaining to wages, hours, and working conditions * * * with the object of reaching a satisfactory understanding." This clause allows not only union participation in adjusting individual rates, but also the negotiation of new wage levels during the term of the agreement.

The Bohn agreement permits the union to participate in setting new wage rates in case of alteration in methods of production, but forbids changes in general wage levels "except by legislative or Executive order." The Reynolds Metals agreement provides for a job survey and reclassification by three experts— one each appointed by the company, the union, and the National War Labor Board. Although it specifies that there shall be no reduction in the rates of pay now received by any employee, "it is mutually agreed that wherever the evaluated rate of a job or jobs falls below the current rate, the employee or employees performing work on such job or jobs shall be

transferred as soon as possible to other jobs of at least equal compensation to the rate they are now receiving." The Reynolds Alloys agreement contains no provision for adjusting rates.

Five of the smaller agreements provide for union participation in setting individual rates or permit adjustment of such rates through the grievance machinery, four permit adjustments in the general wage scales during the term of the agreement, and two agreements provide for both. Three of the agreements permit discussion of general wage changes at the request of either party, in one case not until 5 months after the effective date of the agreement. One of the agreements provides for an automatic increase of 5 percent for each increase of 5 percent in the cost of living as shown by the Bureau of Labor Statistics index for the city in which the plant is situated, unless such adjustment is prohibited by Federal regulations.[6] The company, however, may ask for negotiations on the question if it feels that the increased wage rates jeopardize its financial position.

Minimum call and call-back pay.—All the major agreements require minimum payment to workers who are called to work or report for work at the usual time and find no work available. Two hours' work or 2 hours' pay at regular rates when work is not available is guaranteed by the agreements of the Aluminum Co., except in case of labor disputes, and by the Bohn agreement. The Reynolds Metals agreement provides a guaranty of 4 hours' pay if no work is done, or 8 hours' pay if the employee works part of the day, except "in cases of emergency break-down or causes beyond the control of the company." The Reynolds Alloys agreement requires the company to furnish a minimum of 4 hours' work at regular rates to any employee called to work, except in break-downs or other causes beyond the company's control; if an employee does not complete his shift and then is called back to complete his shift, he must be paid for the total elapsed time.

Seven other agreements also grant minimum call pay, four guaranteeing a minimum of 2 hours' pay, one of 1 hour's pay, and one of 4 hours' pay. Another grants either 2 hours' pay or 4 hours' work, at the company's option.

Intraplant transfer rates.—All agreements of the major companies provide for temporary transfers of employees from their regular jobs and for payment of the higher rate to all workers transferred to higher-rated jobs. In the Aluminum Co. agreements, an employee temporarily transferred to a lower-rated job is to receive his regular rate of pay if his regular job is available during any part of the shift, but if his regular job is not available he is to be paid at the lower rate. The Bohn agreement provides that the employee shall receive the "prevailing rate" of the job to which he is transferred. Under the Reynolds agreements an employee may refuse to accept transfer to a lower-rated job. If he agrees to the transfer in order to avoid being laid off he receives the lower rate, but if the transfer is made at the company's request he is to receive his regular rate.

About half of the agreements covering smaller companies contain no clauses regulating transfers to other jobs. Those which do have such clauses provide that the employee shall receive the higher rate when transferring to a higher-rated job, except that in one agreement

[6] The National War Labor Board has prohibited such automatic increases unless they remain within the 15-percent limit established by the "Little Steel" formula and within the maximum rate of the established wage bracket.

the increase is granted only if it is a permanent transfer and in another the higher rate is paid only to an employee who remains on the job more than 5 days. These last two agreements contain the same provision in the case of transfers to lower-rated jobs; that is, in one case the employee is paid at his regular rate when temporarily transferred but at the lower rate if permanently transferred, and in the other, the lower rate is paid if the employee works at the job more than 5 days. Under the other agreements, in general, the employee is paid at his regular rate, with certain qualifications, when transferred to lower-rated jobs. One agreement resembles the Reynolds agreements, providing that an employee transferred at the company's request shall receive his regular rate. Another is similar to the Aluminum Co. agreements, granting the employee his regular pay if work was available on his regular job.

Shift differentials.—All the major companies which refer to shift work pay a shift differential to workers on both the second and third shifts. The Aluminum Co. of America has paid a shift bonus for several years in some of its plants. In February 1942 the War Labor Board directed payment of a premium of 3 cents per hour to the second shift and 5 cents per hour to the third in the New Kensington plant. In August, another WLB order extended this arrangement to other plants under agreement with the three C. I. O. unions and District 50.[7] By supplemental agreement, the same differential was later granted in plants under agreement with the Aluminum Council.

The Reynolds Metals agreement provides the same shift differentials as the Aluminum Co. of America. The War Labor Board denied a request for payment of a shift differential at the Reynolds Alloys plant, in an order of February 3, 1943. The Bohn agreement does not differentiate between workers on the second and third shifts, providing for payment of a premium of 5 cents per hour to both.

No reference is made to shift work in five agreements covering the smaller companies. Three which mention shifts provide no bonus for night work; in one of these cases a union request for payment of a shift differential was denied by the WLB. Three of the 11 agreements of the smaller companies provide for shift differentials, one of 5 cents per hour for all night work, another of 5 cents for work on the second shift and 10 cents for work on the third, and the third a differential of 5 percent to all workers on the second and third shifts, except machinists, tool and die makers, and apprentices, who receive 10 percent.

OVERTIME, WEEK-END, AND HOLIDAY PAYMENTS

Overtime.—All the agreements provide premium rates for overtime work after 8 hours in a day or 40 in a week; for the larger companies and nine of the smaller companies the rate is time and a half. One of the agreements covering a small company permits 70 hours of overtime work (on Saturday mornings only) in each 6-month period, at straight rates, but otherwise it establishes the prevailing premium rate. Another provides for payment of time and a half for the first 4 hours of overtime and double time thereafter.

[7] The War Labor Board's second order, which affected both smelting and fabricating plants directed payment of the differential only to workers engaged on noncontinuous-process operations. However, only a negligible number of workers are employed on continuous-process operations in the fabrication of aluminum products. A supplemental agreement between the Aluminum Workers of America and the Aluminum Co. requires payment of the shift bonus to all workers. The company has reported to the Bureau that the same bonus is paid in all its plants.

Saturday and Sunday rates.—Although many of the agreements provide for payment of premium rates for Saturday and Sunday work, these terms have been superseded by Executive Order No. 9240.[8] The Aluminum Co. of America agreements provide for time and a half for Sunday work, except "continuous-process operations and employees as are now excepted or hereafter, by mutual agreement, may be excepted." No provision is made for premium payments for work on Saturday, although most workers probably receive higher rates for Saturday work in accordance with the agreement establishing payment of time and a half for work over 40 hours in 1 week.

The Bohn and Reynolds Metals agreements establish payment, in normal times, of time and a half for Saturday work and double time for Sunday work. The Reynolds Alloys agreement contains no provision for normal premium rates, specifying only that payment for work on the sixth and seventh days shall be in accordance with Executive Order No. 9240. The Bohn, Reynolds Metals, and two Aluminum Co. agreements have been specifically modified to conform with the Executive order.

All agreements covering the smaller companies provide for payment of premium rates on either Sunday or the seventh day worked, although more than half do not establish premium rates for work on either Saturday or the sixth day of work. Two agreements provide for time and a half on Saturday and double time on Sunday, one for time and a half on either Saturday or the sixth day and double time on either Sunday or the seventh day, depending upon the department. Four of the remaining agreements provide for time and a half for Sunday work and three provide for double time.

Holiday rates.—None of the aluminum agreements grants pay for holidays if no work is performed, but all make some provision for premium rates for work done on specified holidays. The terms of these agreements have been superseded by Executive Order No. 9240 when they provide for payment of more than time and a half on other than 6 holidays.

The Aluminum Co. agreements provide for payment of a holiday premium on 6 days to the same workers who receive premium payments for Sunday work. Workers in the Bohn and Reynolds Metals plants in normal times are paid double time for work on 6 and 8 holidays, respectively. As in the case of premium payments for work on the sixth and seventh day, the terms of the Reynolds Alloys agreement conforms to Executive Order No. 9240. Those agreements which have been modified to conform with that order, as regards payment of premium rates for week-end work, have also been amended to conform with its terms for payment for holiday work.

Seven of the small companies' agreements require payment of double time on holidays and four specify a premium rate of time and a half. Most of the agreements establish 6 holidays, although three specify 7 and two specify 5 days on which holiday rates shall be paid.

[8] Agreement provisions regulating pay for week-end and holiday work have been superseded by Executive Order No. 9240 "on all work relating to the prosecution of the war." The order prohibits premium pay for Saturday and Sunday work as such, and makes the payment of double time for the seventh consecutive day of a regularly scheduled workweek mandatory. Payment of a premium rate on the sixth day is permitted if it has been paid previously either on the sixth day or on Saturday. Compensation at the rate of time and a half is required for all work performed on 6 specified holidays.

VACATIONS

Either a vacation with pay or a vacation bonus is provided in the agreements covering all the large companies and all but three of the smaller companies.

The Aluminum Co. agreements covering all plants except Massena and La Fayette provide that vacations shall be granted in accordance with the "company plan." The agreement for the Massena and La Fayette plants grants 1 week's vacation to employees with 2 to 5 years' service, and 2 weeks' vacation to employees with 5 or more years' service and states that further provisions shall be in accordance with the company plan. The company vacation plan establishes the same vacation rights, qualifying them, however, by requiring that the employee shall have worked 1,200 or more hours in the preceding year. It permits either the individual employee or the company to decide whether a vacation shall be granted or a bonus paid in lieu of a vacation.

The Reynolds agreements grant vacations to all workers who have been employed for a year or more, ranging from 1 day for every 320 hours worked during the year to a maximum of 1 week if 1,600 hours have been worked. A bonus may be paid instead of a vacation, if it is "found to be impractical" to permit an employee to take time from work. The Bohn agreement stipulates that an employee with 1 year of service shall be paid a vacation bonus of 2½ percent of the total wages he has earned during the year, and provides that "when employees deserve time off for vacation purposes" the period in which the time shall be granted shall be determined by the company and union.

All of the smaller agreements which contain vacation provisions allow vacations of 1 week after employment periods ranging from 6 months to 3 years. Four of the agreements grant shorter vacations for shorter periods of employment. One agreement which grants 40 hours' pay for 1 week's vacation to employees with less than 3 years' service, gives 50 hours' pay for a vacation of the same length to those employed more than 3 years. Three of the agreements permit payment of a bonus in lieu of vacation, two at the employee's option and one at the company's request.

SENIORITY

All the agreements provide seniority rules under which employees with longer service receive certain advantages; these consist most generally in preference in lay-offs and rehiring and less frequently in preference in promotion, choice of vacation time, and shift assignments.

The Aluminum Co. agreements establish three types of seniority, each being applied for a different purpose. "Departmental" seniority is the length of service within a department, exclusive of time lost because of lay-offs of more than 1 week, leaves of absence in excess of 21 days, etc. "Continuous-service" seniority is the sum of all departmental seniorities. "Company" seniority includes all time from the beginning of the "present continuous service," and includes periods of lay-off and other absences which are not included in departmental and continuous-service seniority.

In the Reynolds plants, seniority is acquired only within a department. The Bohn agreement provides that "straight plant seniority will be continued in effect in the separate plants, based on type of

work, classification, and length of service with the company, except * * * in plants 2 and 3 departmental seniority shall prevail and in the tool rooms of the various plants departmental seniority shall prevail." About two-thirds of the agreements of the smaller companies provide for seniority by department and one-third on a plant basis, with one plant establishing both plant and departmental seniority.

In most of the major agreements a probationary period is required before seniority becomes effective. Under agreements of the Aluminum Co. of America, an employee must have worked 90 days to acquire seniority rights; under the Reynolds Metals agreement, 30 days; and under the Bohn agreement, 30 days, to be accumulated during 6 months by new employees and during 1 year by old employees who are transferred to another plant. Only five of the agreements of the smaller companies require employees, before acquiring seniority rights, to complete probationary periods ranging from 30 days' to 6 months' employment accumulated within 18 months.

Seniority for union officials.—Many unions prefer to have their shop committeemen placed at the head of the seniority list, but this practice is not common in the aluminum-fabrication industry. Of the larger companies, only the Bohn agreement provides special seniority arrangements for union officials; the plant chairman and chief shop steward to outrank all those "under his or her jurisdiction," and the other union officials, such as the president, vice president, sergeant-at-arms, etc., to outrank all employees in their own departments except the plant chairman and chief shop steward. Six of the smaller companies' agreements also place union officials or shop committeemen at the head of the seniority list; one of these agreements provides that they shall be the last discharged, provided efficient operation is not affected; and another makes their continuance at work conditional upon the availability of work which they can do.

Seniority for other special groups.—Agreements of both the Aluminum Co. of America and the Reynolds Metals Co. make special provisions for certain skilled employees. The Aluminum Co. agreements exempt from seniority an employee who, because of special training or ability, is necessary to the efficient operation of the plant. Such an employee may be hired, retained, transferred, or rehired after a lay-off, regardless of any provisions of the agreement, provided that he is placed on a job using his special ability and that the management will, "if time permits," first discuss its action with union representatives in the department involved. No limit is placed on the number of such employees.

The Reynolds Metals agreement provides that no more than 2 percent of the total plant personnel "may be employed and retained without consideration to seniority," to be trained for supervisory positions. One percent of the employees are to be chosen from among workers in the plant and 1 percent may be selected from outside the plant. Such employees may perform all work done by the employees covered by the agreement. However, in the event of a lay-off in any department, they may not be used to displace a regular employee doing the same type of work but shall instead be transferred to another department in which work is available.

Special consideration is accorded to employees of the Reynolds Metals Co. and of five of the smaller companies when they are unable to perform heavy work after having given "long and faithful service."

Preference is to be shown to them by employment on light work which they are able to do. Two of these agreements make the same provisions for employees who are incapacitated by injury received during employment.

Loss of seniority.—Most agreements provide for retention of seniority during lay-offs, generally for certain specified periods. The Aluminum Co. agreements provide for permanent retention of all types of seniority, provided the employee reports, at least once in every 12 months, his address and his willingness to return to his regular job. Departmental and continuous-service seniority accumulate, however, only during lay-offs of less than 1 week's duration. The Reynolds Metals and Alloys agreements do not specify the duration of a lay-off during which seniority shall be maintained, although the Reynolds Metals agreement limits accumulation of seniority to not over 90 days during any one lay-off. The Bohn agreement provides for permanent retention of seniority for employees on the seniority list January 1, 1942, provided that the laid-off employee registers quarterly. Workers hired after January 1, 1942, presumably as a result of expansion caused by war production, maintain seniority rights only during lay-offs of not more than 12 months' duration.

Of the smaller-company agreements, only three state definitely the period during which seniority is maintained; two provide that it shall be lost after 24 months and one after 1 year. One other agreement provides that lay-off "shall not affect an employee's seniority" and another specifies that it shall not be affected by "temporary" lay-off.

Most of the agreements establish time limits within which the worker must report when recalled after a lay-off; these range in length from 24 hours to 5 days. In some cases, including the Aluminum Co., a worker who fails to report on the first call is replaced on the list and recalled on the next opportunity, if he makes such a request (which the Aluminum Co. agreements require to be made within 10 days). In other cases he may be recalled after presentation of an adequate excuse for not having reported. One agreement, by War Labor Board order, provides that an employee shall not lose seniority if he does not report when recalled, if he is employed on defense work and the company cannot guarantee at least 8 weeks' continuous employment.

Most of the agreements, including all of the larger companies, specifically state that seniority shall end with discharge or quitting; this is probably taken for granted under the other agreements. Various other causes of loss of seniority are contained in some of the agreements, such as being absent from work for a specified number of days without permission or without reporting that sickness or accident is the cause, overstaying a leave of absence, working during a leave of absence, reporting to work while intoxicated, violation of company rules, etc. Although most of the agreements contain one or more of these additional causes for loss of seniority, no one of the causes is found in a majority of the agreements, and a few of the agreements make no provision whatever for loss of seniority.

LAY-OFFS AND REHIRING

All agreements, except those of the Aluminum Co. and one of the smaller companies, provide that the order of lay-offs and rehiring

shall be based solely on seniority status. The Aluminum Co. agreements provide that in determining the workers to be laid off in a reduction of forces or rehired after a lay-off, company seniority shall govern unless there is "sufficient difference in ability" to outweigh seniority. All of these agreements, except those of the Aluminum Council and of the United Automobile Workers, provide further that if neither seniority nor ability predominate, consideration shall be given to family status and residence within the community. The Aluminum Council agreement for the Massena and La Fayette plants does not specify the particular additional factors to be considered, but states merely that "when advisable" consideration shall be given to "other factors" in addition to seniority and ability. One of the smaller-company agreements states that family status shall be considered if seniority and ability are equal.

In a reduction of forces at the Aluminum Co. of America plants, which result in demotion rather than lay-off, either departmental or company seniority shall govern as decided by prior agreement of the local management and union. However, if the reduction causes a lay-off, company seniority is the decisive factor. All the agreements state further than an employee with more than 5 years' continuous service, who is to be laid off, may transfer to another department in the same or in another plant in the community and displace the employee with least seniority, provided the latter has less than 1 year's continuous service. All except the Aluminum Council agreement provide further that an employee with more than 10 years' service may in the same manner displace another employee with 2 years' service. Under these provisions an employee will be placed in a job in the lowest classification in the department to which he transfers, regardless of the job held by the employee he is displacing. He must, of course, have the ability to do the required work. In a restoration of forces, employees are to be returned to their regular department "if practicable" and given their former departmental seniority. An employee who refuses to return loses his seniority in his regular department.

In a permanent displacement caused by "major improvement, a major change in process, or the permanent elimination of an entire operation unit," all the Aluminum Co. agreements give additional protection to an employee with more than 5 years' continuous service; under such circumstances he may replace an employee with 4 years' service. For promotion purposes, the employee transferred because of technological change is given the departmental seniority of the employee he has displaced.

All the agreements, except those with the Aluminum Council, provide that a person who has been laid off, and has maintained his company and continuous-service seniority by reporting for work annually, shall be given preference for work in other departments and in other plants in the same community and, if work is not available "within a reasonable time," in other plants in other communities covered by the same agreement.

In the Bohn Corporation, in all except the tool rooms and two plants, employees are laid off in order of plant seniority, an employee in one department replacing an employee in another department with less seniority. However, such a transfer does not occur if the lay-off is to be of 2 days or less, "unless a different period of time is mutually agreed upon by the company and the plant bargaining committee."

In the tool rooms and the two plants, departmental seniority controls the order of lay-offs.

The Reynolds agreements merely state that departmental seniority shall govern in lay-offs, but no detailed regulations for applying this policy are established. In the agreement for the small company which establishes both plant and departmental seniority, the latter is used for lay-offs under 2 weeks and plant seniority for lay-offs of over 2 consecutive weeks.

Notice of lay-offs and rehiring.—In the Aluminum Co. of America, notice of reduction of forces and a list of names of employees to be laid off are posted 2 days before the reduction takes effect, "unless cancelations of orders, changes in customers' requirements, breakdown, accidents, or other emergency makes such notice impossible." The list is to be given the union concerned, upon request, and grievances arising from the reduction must be presented within 2 days of the notice, if possible. Further rules consistent with the provisions in these agreements may be negotiated by the local management and union.

The Bohn agreement requires that notice of employees to be laid off or rehired shall be given to the chief steward and "sufficient time allowed" so that he can check their seniority standing. The Reynolds Metals agreement requires the company to give the individual employee notice of 2 working days "except in emergency cases," the question of emergency being decided by the departmental foreman and shop steward. The Reynolds Alloys agreement makes no provision for giving notice in regard to lay-offs.

Both the Aluminum Co. and Reynolds Metals agreements require the company to give 48 hours' notice of restoration of forces in calling an employee back to work after a lay-off, while the Bohn and Reynolds Alloys agreements do not specify the length of advance notice for rehiring. None of the smaller companies is required by its agreement to give formal advance notice of a lay-off. Only three of their agreements specify the period during which an employee must report to work when recalled after a lay-off, 48 hours in one and 3 days in two.

Work sharing.—Of the largest companies, only the Aluminum Co. agreements call for some degree of work sharing during slack periods. These provide that employees within any department or other "proper unit" with more than 1 year's continuous service shall not have their workweek reduced for "any continued period" until employees with less than 1 year's seniority have been laid off. Thereafter, work is to be distributed "as equally as possible." If such distribution "probably" would result in employees' working less than 4 days per week, "averaged over a reasonable period of time," further lay-offs are to be made according to the above-described procedure, until the remaining employees "will have a reasonable expectancy of averaging at least 4 days' work per week."

Three of the agreements of the smaller companies also provide for work sharing; in two cases, until employees work not less than 24 hours per week, and in the third case, not less than 30 hours. One of these agreements requires that if regular employees continue working only 3 days a week for "an unreasonable period of time in the opinion of the majority of the employees affected," the company representatives shall explain the probable duration of the work shortage and the "employees affected" shall decide by majority vote the "division of time or reduction of forces to be effected." Under the other two

agreements before work sharing becomes operative, employees with seniority ranging from less than 9 months to less than 18 months are laid off.

One of the agreements covering a smaller company prohibits work sharing by providing that employees with less than 6 months' seniority be laid off first and other employees thereafter according to seniority, so as to provide a 5-day week.

PROMOTIONS

Both the Aluminum Co. and Reynolds Alloys agreements provide for promotions in accordance with seniority, provided the employee has "sufficient ability" to do the work. The Aluminum Co. agreements provide that in filling new jobs or vacancies, the job is to be posted and consideration is to be given in order of departmental seniority to workers who apply and who are in the "same general classification" in the same department, and (except under the Aluminum Council agreement which refers only to departmental seniority) next, to workers in the same classification in other departments in the same plant or in other plants in the same community, or to those who have been transferred, demoted, or laid off because of a reduction of forces in the department. Thereafter consideration is to be given to employees in the next lower classification in the same department.

In practice, under this procedure, lines of progression from job to job have been established within departments, with possibly several lines of progression in each department and with each job preparing the employee for the next higher job on the line. In this way training periods are shortened. The statement in the agreement that consideration for promotion will be given to workers in the "same general classification" has been interpreted to mean that consideration will be given to the worker with the highest seniority (either company or departmental, depending on the plant) in the next lower classification in the line of progression, who applies for the job after it has been posted. In accordance with this interpretation, employees can change from one line of progression to another only within the same department and only by going to the bottom of the new line of progression. The employee with the greatest seniority if he "so deserves" is to be "given a trial unless he does not have sufficient ability to fill such new job or vacancy." If he is passed over, the job is not to be permanently filled until after the employee has had his case "fully considered," provided it is presented within 5 days at all plants, except Massena and La Fayette where it may be presented within 7 days. Although this procedure need not be followed in promotion to supervisory positions, the company agrees that it will " in general" be followed.

The Reynolds Alloys agreement requires that the employee with greatest seniority who bids for a new job is to be given a trial period, if he is qualified "in the opinion of management and the department shop steward." Disputes arising from this provision are to be settled in accordance with the regular grievance procedure. Supervisory positions are to be filled "in general" by this same policy. The Reynolds Metals agreement contains no provision dealing with promotions. The Bohn agreement specifies that the "company and the union will mutually agree" on employees to be promoted, except for supervisory positions.

Five of the smaller-company agreements include general provisions to the effect that promotions are to be based on seniority, and two state that the company agrees to make "every effort" to promote by seniority. The others do not specify how promotions are to be made.

MILITARY SERVICE

Seniority rights of employees who enter the military service are considered in all the agreements of the larger companies except that of the Reynolds Alloys Co., and in seven of the smaller companies. All of these, except three of the smaller agreements, provide specifically that seniority rights shall accumulate during the absence of the employee.[9] Of these three, one states that those returning shall be reemployed in accordance with the provisions of the Selective Service Act; another states that leave of absence for military duty "will not jeopardize the seniority standing"; and the third provides that there shall be no "loss of seniority."

The Aluminum Co. agreements specify that further regulations concerning employees entering military service may be promulgated by the company, if explained to the local union. Under this provision the company has agreed to pay a bonus equal to the difference between Government pay and company pay, for 1 month after induction, to employees with more than 90 days' but less than 1 year's seniority; and for 2 months to employees with more than 1 year's seniority. In addition, employees are granted vacation pay for which they are eligible or for which they would have become eligible during the first year of military service. Three of the smaller agreements also provide that employees who enter military service shall be given their earned vacation bonus.

LEAVES OF ABSENCE

All the agreements of the major companies grant the workers leaves of absence, both for union business and for other "reasonable" cause. In the Aluminum Co. of America plants, leave is granted on request "when requirements of the plant permit * * * for a limited time with the privilege of renewal." Those elected to union office may take a year's leave, which may be renewed for another year. At the Reynolds Metals plant, workers may take leave "for reasonable cause * * * for a limited time with the privilege of renewal." Stewards or executive officers of the union are granted leave, the duration of which is not stated, to carry on union duties. The Reynolds Alloys agreement permits an employee to take leave for not more than 30 days, except that it may extend over a "stated period" when taken to conduct union business. Under the terms of the Bohn agreement, "if mutually agreed upon by both the company and the union," leave may be taken for a period of 6 months, with privilege of renewal, or for the duration of a term of office or for other specific union business.

All these agreements forbid the employee who is on leave from engaging in other occupations, except for serving the union, and

[9] See "Military Service and War-Job Clauses in Union Agreements," Monthly Labor Review, December 1942 (pp. 1147–1155), for interpretation of seniority rights under the Selective Service Act.

specify that if he fails to report by the end of his leave, he shall be considered to have quit, and consequently shall forfeit his seniority.

Only five of the agreements covering smaller companies make provision for employees' taking leave. In two cases leave is granted specifically for both union business and other reasons; in another, only for union business; and in the other two, for general reasons with union business not specifically mentioned. One of the agreements which provide for taking leave for general reasons requires the consent of both the management and the union shop committee. The duration of permissible leave varies from 1 week to "a definite period of time, to be specified in the leave."

The effect of a leave of absence upon the employee's seniority rating is not clearly established in most cases. The Aluminum Co. agreements provide for accumulation of departmental seniority during leaves of absence not in excess of 21 days per year. Absences thereafter, except for time spent negotiating with the company as a union representative, are not accumulated. If an employee takes leave in order to hold union office, he is to be reemployed "in the same classification * * * if such work is available, and he will not lose the seniority status which he had at the beginning of such leave of absence."

The Reynolds Alloys agreement states that employees shall be returned to work "without loss of seniority," while the Reynolds Metals, Bohn, and small companies' agreements say nothing about either the retention or accumulation of seniority.

HEALTH, SAFETY, AND WELFARE

Provisions concerning the health and safety of workers are contained in the agreements of one Aluminum Co. plant, the Bohn Co., and five smaller companies. The United Automobile Workers agreement with the Aluminum Co. of America provides that sanitary and safety conditions are to be maintained in accordance with the State, county, and city laws, and that the company, in cooperation with the union, is to work out a health and safety program. The Bohn agreement encourages workers to have minor injuries treated, by providing that they are to receive treatment on company time if they are not disabled, and that they are to be paid for all time until they are actually ordered home or to the hospital by the doctor at the plant, if they are disabled.

The safety and health clauses in the smaller-company agreements contain the general statement that the company will continue to protect the health and safety of its employees. Two agreements specifically require the company to provide protective equipment. Only one establishes a safety committee to make suggestions concerning appliances and working practices, consisting of one company and one union representative, and one neutral person who is called in to act as arbitrator in the event of disagreement.

APPRENTICESHIPS

Apprentice plans are established in the agreements of the Aluminum Co. of America, the Bohn Co., and one smaller company. The terms of the Aluminum Co. agreements are applicable to apprentices who have contracted with the company for a period of years, "normally 4," to learn the trade under a specific program of study. The ratio

of apprentices to journeymen may be a matter for negotiation between the local union and plant management, at the union's request, and this ratio is to be maintained in periods of lay-off. The Bohn agreement covers apprentices to tool and die makers and patternmakers, establishing a ratio of 1 apprentice to every 20 journeymen or major fraction thereof. It provides for a 6-month probationary period and establishes a wage scale containing regular increases at 1,000-hour intervals. For the duration of the war, an increase in the ratio of apprentices to journeymen is a subject for negotiation when skilled mechanics are not available. The smaller company's agreement provides that employment of apprentices shall be in accordance with standards approved by the Federal Committee on Apprenticeship.[10]

GRIEVANCES

Grievance machinery.—All the agreements in the industry establish some form of procedure for the settlement of grievances. The Aluminum Co. of America and the Bohn agreements give the employee the option of asking the union representative to discuss his grievance with his foreman or of talking to his foreman himself. The Reynolds Alloys agreement provides that the employee must first take the grievance to his immediate supervisor before presenting it to the union, while in the Reynolds Metals agreement the employee and the union representative together are to present the matter to the foreman. Most of the smaller-company agreements state that the union representative or committee shall present the grievance to the foreman of the employee's department.

The Aluminum Co. agreements also permit the employee to choose at all later stages of the grievance procedure whether he shall meet the company officials alone or with his union representatives. Only one of the smaller-company agreements gives the employee this option. According to the terms of the other agreements, if the employee and his union representative and his foreman fail to reach an agreement, the union grievance committee or, in a few cases, the chief shop steward or other union official, discusses the grievance with higher company officials. At successive stages the entire union committee (and possibly representatives of the international union) meets with higher company officials, such as the plant manager, personnel director, or president of the company.

Payment to union officials participating in grievance meetings.—Most of the agreements do not specify whether meetings between shop stewards and management are to be held during or after working hours, or whether the stewards are paid for time spent on grievance work or in grievance meetings. The Aluminum Co. agreements state that employees shall not experience loss of time when conferences "must be held" during working hours. The Reynolds Metals agreement provides that consideration of grievances shall be taken up after working hours, if the head of the department thinks such "consideration would interfere with efficient operation of the department."

Although the majority of the smaller-company agreements make no provision for attendance at grievance meetings, there is a scattering of provisions on the subject, varying from one which specifically states that meetings must be held after working hours, to another which states

[10] Now Apprentice-Training Service in Bureau of Training, War Manpower Commission.

they shall be held during working hours with no loss of time to those attending.

Arbitration.—The Reynolds agreements and five of the agreements covering smaller companies provide for arbitration at the request of either the union or the company. The agreements of the Aluminum Co. of America provide for arbitration only if both union and company agree to it, permitting the party who is satisfied with the current situation to prevent recourse to arbitration. Excepted are unsettled disputes arising from the maintenance-of-membership clause which, under the NWLB order, must be arbitrated either by the regular arbitration procedure established in the agreement or by an arbitrator appointed by the Board.

The Bohn agreement and those of six of the smaller companies do not provide for arbitration, although two of the latter permit either party to appeal to conciliation.

The Aluminum Co. agreements include no procedures for establishing arbitration boards or selecting impartial chairmen, a decision thus being required each time the parties agree to arbitrate. The Reynolds Metals Co. agreement provides that a permanent chairman be appointed by the Chairman of the National War Labor Board, to serve with a board composed of an equal number of company and union representatives selected each time a dispute is to be adjudicated. The other agreements also establish temporary boards, composed of company and union representatives who select the impartial chairmen. All but one of these provide for selection of the impartial representative by a governmental agency if the company and union cannot agree; four refer the selection to the Conciliation Service of the U. S. Department of Labor, and one to either the United States Secretary of Labor or the Pennsylvania Secretary of Labor and Industry.

The Reynolds Metals Co. and three of the smaller-company agreements establish time limits for some of the procedures involved in establishing the arbitration board. The former agreement and one of the latter require that the company and union representatives be appointed within 48 hours of a request for arbitration. Another requires appointment of the company and union representatives within 5 days of the request, and provides that if the party upon which the request is made fails to appoint its representatives within that time, it shall automatically be understood as a request to the Conciliation Service to appoint an arbitrator.

The selection of an impartial chairman is referred by the various agreements to the designated governmental agency within a period ranging from 3 to 15 days after selection of the company and union representatives. None of the agreements requires the arbitration board to make its decision within any specified time, although one states that it must meet within 5 days of the selection of the impartial chairman.

Scope of grievance procedure.—The Aluminum Co. of America agreements state that grievances which may be adjusted through use of the grievance procedure "may include any difference of opinion or dispute * * * regarding interpretation or explanation of any provision of this agreement." The Reynolds Metals agreement likewise permits arbitration of any dispute arising under the terms

of the agreement, specifically excluding proposed changes in the agreement. The Reynolds Alloys agreement permits use of the grievance machinery for any matter of controversy "including wages, hours, working conditions * * * except as provided in the attached wage addenda [to the agreement]."

Two of the smaller-company agreements contain clauses permitting discussion of any difference concerning the meaning of provisions or "any trouble" which may arise. Two others specifically provide that wage rates are not subject to arbitration. The Bohn agreement and the others of the smaller companies contain no specific definition of grievances.

Discharges.—All of the major and six of the smaller agreements establish special procedures to be followed in case of discharge of a regular employee, and all but one of these provide for reinstatement of the employee with back pay if he is found to have been discharged unjustly. The agreements which do not establish arbitration as the means of settling other grievances do not provide for arbitration concerning discharges.

The Aluminum Co. agreements provide that an employee may be discharged for "proper and just cause." However, before he is finally discharged there must be a suspension period of 5 days, in all plants except those at Vernon, Massena, and La Fayette, where 3 days is specified. The employee and union representative must be told the reason for the discharge and it may then be taken up as a grievance through the regular grievance procedure. If possible, it is to be disposed of within the suspension period but must be brought up within 10 days of the actual discharge.

The Bohn agreement lists various specific acts for which the employee may be discharged, such as theft, falsification of the record of work performed, habitual drunkenness on the job, etc. The employee and plant chairman must be told the reason immediately, and a hearing may be requested which must be held as soon as possible and not later than the following working day. However, disciplinary penalties of not more than 1 week's lay-off are set by mutual agreement of the foreman and department steward, whose decision is final. Both of the Reynolds agreements grant the company the right to discharge an employee for "sufficient and reasonable cause"; disputed discharges are to be taken up through the regular grievance procedure. In the Alloys plant, protest must be made within 10 days; the Metals agreement does not establish any time limit.

Of the six smaller-company agreements which deal specifically with the problem of discharge, two provide that disputed discharges shall be considered under the regular grievance procedure. The other four provide for special hearings after a discharge; in only one case is there a time limit—24 hours for a protest to be made, and an additional 48 hours during which a hearing must be held.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS

The agreements of the Aluminum Co. of America and of the Reynolds Metals Co. do not specifically prohibit work stoppages; the Reynolds Alloys agreement prohibits stoppages during the "utilization" of grievance machinery. All these agreements, as indicated

above, provide for arbitration of disputes not settled by the parties concerned, although the Aluminum Co. agreements require mutual consent before arbitration may be resorted to. The Bohn agreement, which does not provide for arbitration of disputes, forbids stoppages during negotiations on grievances.

Of the five smaller-company agreements which provide for arbitration, one contains no clause specifically prohibiting work stoppages, two forbid resort to strikes and lockouts while grievances are being negotiated, one during arbitration proceedings, and one during the term of the agreement. Five of the agreements without arbitration provisions also forbid stoppages during the use of the grievance machinery, one of these prohibiting them also during negotiations for a new agreement, while the remaining agreement says nothing about a strike or lockout.

Health and Industrial Accidents

Eye Injuries in Shipyards [1]

THE elimination of eye hazards is one of the most pressing and at the same time one of the most difficult problems facing the shipyard safety engineer. The urgency of the problem is indicated by the fact that eye injuries constitute more than one in every five disabling shipyard injuries.

During the first 5 months of 1943 the Bureau of Labor Statistics received 19,244 individual reports describing accidents which caused disabling injuries to shipyard workers. These accident reports were submitted by shipyards holding Federal contracts, in conformance with the Minimum Requirements of the U. S. Navy-U. S. Maritime Commission Safety and Health Program. Eye injuries totaled 4,089, or 21 percent of the entire group of reported injuries.

The count of disabling cases, however, falls far short of presenting the entire picture. The great majority of eye injuries fortunately do not result in loss of time beyond the day of injury. Each of these so-called "no lost time cases," however, does cause some lost time on the day of injury, and because of the great numbers of such injuries the total lost time which they produce assumes considerable magnitude. Moreover, every minor injury represents the potentiality of a more serious disabling injury.

The difficulties of preventing eye injuries in shipyards arise from the wide variety of eye hazards inherent in shipbuilding operations, and from the fact that the operations creating those hazards frequently cannot be segregated. Workers in any part of a shipyard may be directly exposed to several different eye hazards at any one time and each of those hazards may require a somewhat different type of protective measure. The selection of the proper preventive procedures and devices is seriously complicated by the fact that workers must be protected not only against the hazards of their own work but also from the injury possibilities arising from completely dissimilar work which may be carried on in their vicinity. This condition is particularly prevalent in respect to welder's flash cases.

Analysis of over 1,500 disabling welder's flash cases indicates that only about 1 in 6 of these cases resulted from exposure to rays from the injured worker's own arc. In fact, more than 60 percent of all disabling flashes were experienced by workers who were not themselves engaged in welding work but found it necessary to work in the vicinity of welding operations. Nearly half of these eye flashes were experienced by shipfitters. A very substantial number of welders, however, received similar flashes from the arcs of their coworkers. Typical of the latter group was the case of a shop welder who stepped out of

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Industrial Hazards by Frank S. McElroy and Arthur L. Svenson.

his booth and raised his hood. The adjoining booths were not shielded at the front and he received a flash from his neighbor's work.

Cases of welder's flash accounted for 37 percent of all the disabling eye injuries reported and far outnumbered the eye injuries resulting from any other single operation during the first 4 months of 1943. Flying particles, however, accounted for 51 percent of all the disabling eye injuries. In the great majority of those cases the origin of the flying particles which produced the injuries was definitely identified as one of the following operations: Chipping, caulking, scaling, welding, grinding, reaming, drilling, or burning. Substantial numbers of these injuries were experienced by workers who were not performing the operations which created the flying particles. The majority of the flying-particle injuries, however, were suffered by workers engaged in those operations. In most instances these injured workers were not wearing goggles. Many of them apparently knew that they should have been wearing impact goggles, but stated as an excuse that the work was of short duration and it hardly seemed necessary to go to the stockroom for goggles. Another case, illustrating the tendency to postpone taking proper precautions, involved a chipper's helper. On his first morning at work he reported to the infirmary with a piece of steel in his eye. His leaderman had not instructed him to get impact goggles at the start of the shift, but had "intended to warn him during the day."

Methods of Prevention

Three preventive measures are suggested by this analysis of eye injuries:

(1) More extensive use of goggles both by workers engaged in eye-hazard operations and by those who must work near such operations.

(2) More extensive use of screens to shield workers, other than the operators, from the dangers of eye-hazard operations wherever such shielding is practicable.

(3) Segregation of eye-hazard operations whenever possible.

Complete success in the application of these measures would reduce the volume of eye injuries by nearly 75 percent.

The greater and more effective use of goggles, however, involves more than merely making such protective equipment available. In more than 15 percent of the disabling cases resulting from flying particles the injured person was wearing goggles. The fact that the eye injury occurred despite the use of goggles indicates that the equipment was either mechanically defective or unsuited as a guard against the hazards involved. It is essential, therefore, that goggles of the proper type be provided and that all goggles be inspected frequently to insure that they are being used properly and are in good condition.

As there are probably few, if any, instances in which impact goggles are entirely unavailable to workers who are exposed to the flying particles from chipping, caulking, scaling, welding, grinding, reaming, drilling, and burning, the problem in respect to most of the eye hazards is not so much to increase the supply of goggles as to see that they are used. In many cases this appears to be a matter of making mandatory the use of such goggles in places where the worker is exposed to flying particles. In others the convenient location of supplies of goggles close to the places in which they may be needed

would overcome the tendency of workers to take a chance on working without protection for short periods. Most important, however, is the need for further education of the workers and their supervisors so that they recognize and appreciate the need for goggles, and understand the conditions which call for different types of goggles. An example of the type of case which such education would prevent is that of a shipfitter who bought his own goggles when he was assigned to help welders in tacking plates. Unfortunately the goggles were of the impact type with clear lens which are of little avail against welder's flash.

Adequate screening of eye-hazard operations whenever possible is the most effective method of protecting workers other than the operators from eye injuries. Screening can be applied, without great difficulty, to most operations performed in the shops; to a considerable extent it is also practicable to shield the most hazardous operations upon the ways. It is true that the provision and placement of portable screens may at times be an inconvenience and may seem to take considerable time, but the saving in lost time resulting from injuries to nearby workmen should more than compensate for that expenditure of effort.

Segregation of eye-hazard operations whenever possible will simplify the application of protective measures against those hazards. When work can be arranged so that only those engaged upon one particular kind of operation are permitted within the danger area, the problem of guarding against injuries to persons who are unfamiliar with the hazards is largely overcome. Moreover, under these circumstances it becomes possible for supervisors to note very quickly any violations of standard safe practice, since every one in the area should be following the same rules and procedures. Many plants have found this procedure very effective in reducing eye injuries in their shops. In outside work, segregation of hazardous operations is frequently difficult or even impracticable; it can, however, be arranged in many instances with little interference to efficient production.

Eye Injuries by Source of Injury

In the following table the cases of eye injuries, reported by shipyards during the first 5 months of 1943, have been tabulated to show the various pertinent factors most commonly associated with those injuries.

Disabling Eye Injuries in Shipyards, During First 5 Months of 1943, Classified by Unsafe Working Condition, Accident Type, Agency, and Operation

Accident type and source of injury	Total		Number of cases								
			Failure to wear or use adequate protective equipment						Other unsafe working conditions	No unsafe working conditions	Unclassified, insufficient data
				Impact goggles		Antiflash goggles		No welding screens			
	Number	Percent	Total	Not wearing	Defective	Not wearing	Defective				
All eye injuries	4,089	100	3,227	1,424	344	1,245	58	156	206	242	414
Flying particles lodging in eye	2,109	51	1,575	1,264	311	------	------	------	38	116	380
Resulting from—											
Chipping, caulking, scaling	654	15	627	477	150	------	------	------	------	20	7
From own operation	627	14	604	454	150	------	------	------	------	17	6
From other's operation	27	1	23	23	------	------	------	------	------	3	1
Welding	376	9	346	312	34	------	------	------	------	26	4
From own operation	339	8	315	284	31	------	------	------	------	20	4
From other's operation	37	1	31	28	3	------	------	------	------	6	------
Grinding, reaming, drilling	359	9	345	284	61	------	------	------	------	10	4
From own operation	289	7	281	228	53	------	------	------	------	6	2
From other's operation	70	2	64	56	8	------	------	------	------	4	2
Burning	190	5	183	122	61	------	------	------	------	5	2
From own operation	176	5	170	110	60	------	------	------	------	4	2
From other's operation	14	(1)	13	12	1	------	------	------	------	1	------
Sheet-metal and machine-shop operations	84	2	74	69	5	------	------	------	------	4	6
Free air-borne particles	126	3	------	------	------	------	------	------	1	23	102
Sources unknown or unclassified	320	8	------	------	------	------	------	------	37	28	255
Welder's flash	1,514	37	1,459	------	------	1,245	58	156	16	39	------
From own operation	234	6	229	------	------	221	8	------	------	5	------
From other's operation	1,280	31	1,230	------	------	1,024	50	156	16	34	------
Struck by, other than flying particles in eye	317	8	178	146	32	------	------	------	54	62	23
Other accident type	149	4	15	14	1	------	------	------	98	25	11

[1] Less than half of 1 percent.

Industrial Injuries, August 1943

AUGUST reports from 12,199 manufacturing plants listed 32,482 disabling injuries experienced by employees during the month. The reporting plants employed about 7,630,000 workers, or about 47 percent of the total manufacturing employment for the month. Assuming that the reporting establishments constitute a representative sample, the total number of disabling injuries experienced by workers in all manufacturing plants of the United States during August, therefore, may be estimated as about 69,000.

The actual record of the days lost from work because of these occupational injuries is not available because many of the injured persons had not recovered at the time the August reports were prepared. Twenty days, however, may be regarded as a conservative average time loss for each disabling injury. Using this average, the August injuries represent the direct loss of 1,380,000 man-days of production without any allowance for the continuing economic loss resulting from the many deaths and permanent physical impairments included in the totals. This direct loss alone is equivalent to a month of full-time employment for 53,000 workers.

The reports indicated that 0.4 percent of the injuries had resulted in death and 3.2 percent had caused permanent physical impairments. Later information, however, probably will show that other injuries, which appeared to be only temporary at the time the reports were submitted, have since developed into additional deaths and permanent disabilities.

Comparison with the reports for the previous month showed no significant general trend in the injury frequency rates. Among the 78 industries for which the comparison was possible, there were 34 which had August frequency rates one or more frequency-rate points lower than in July, and 26 industries with August rates which were one or more points higher than their July rates. Nine of the decreases amounted to 5 or more frequency-rate points and 7 of the increases were 5-point advances. For 16 industries the August averages represented the highest frequency rate reported in any of the first 8 months of 1943. On the other hand, the August averages for 6 industries were the lowest monthly rates thus far reported in 1943.

Cumulative injury-frequency rates for the first 8 months of 1943, which present a more accurate picture of safety conditions in the various industries than do the rates for particular months, ranged from an average of 5.5 disabling injuries for each million employee hours worked in the women's clothing industry to 65.3 in the sawmill industry. Other industries which had cumulative frequency rates of less than 10 were sighting and fire-control equipment, 6.7; radios and phonographs, 7.7; rayon and allied products (chemical), 8.1; cement, 8.7; and men's clothing, 8.8.

In direct contrast to these rates, which indicate good safety performance, there were six industries, in addition to sawmills, with cumulative frequency rates of over 40. These were corrugated boxes, 41.2; forgings, 41.9; foundries, 42.9; plate fabrication and boiler-shop products, 47.4; concrete, gypsum, and plaster products, 50.8; and planing mills, 58.3.

Industrial Injury-Frequency [1] Rates for Selected Manufacturing Industries, August 1943, with Cumulative Rates for 1943

Industry [2]	August 1943		1943: Cumulative frequency rate	1942: Frequency rate
	Number of establishments	Frequency rate [3]		
Agricultural machinery and tractors	42	23.1	18.8	18.3
Aircraft	51	10.5	10.2	11.4
Aircraft parts	197	12.9	16.9	9.5
Ammunition, 20 mm. and over	366	26.2	27.3	17.2
Ammunition, small arms	24	15.9	19.0	(4)
Baking	12	23.3	19.1	16.2
Book and job printing	28	11.0	14.2	10.5
Boots and shoes, not rubber	293	14.7	14.1	9.0
Canning and preserving	53	19.2	20.3	33.0
Carpets and rugs	7	25.9	13.8	14.1
Cement	92	10.8	8.7	7.3
Chemicals, industrial	354	20.3	19.0	16.8
Clothing, men's	491	9.9	8.8	7.7
Clothing, women's	354	5.3	5.5	4.6
Coke ovens	25	11.4	17.7	22.0
Concrete, gypsum, and plaster products	124	51.8	50.8	48.4
Confectionery	10	20.2	17.5	15.2
Construction and mining machinery	129	36.5	33.3	28.4
Corrugated boxes	92	34.7	41.2	30.7
Cotton goods	61	17.3	15.7	16.3
Cutlery and edge tools	31	27.4	23.9	24.5

See footnotes at end of table.

Industrial Injury-Frequency [1] Rates for Selected Manufacturing Industries, August 1943, with Cumulative Rates for 1943—Continued

Industry [2]	August 1943		1943: Cumulative frequency rate	1942: Frequency rate
	Number of establishments	Frequency rate [3]		
Drugs, toiletries, and insecticides	67	22.9	21.9	15.4
Dyeing and finishing	30	26.0	23.0	24.8
Electrical equipment and supplies	686	13.6	11.6	7.3
Engines and turbines	69	21.2	[5] 20.8	(4)
Explosives	40	17.3	12.2	6.4
Fabricated structural steel	136	36.3	33.5	40.7
Fiber boxes	27	29.9	30.3	55.3
Folding boxes	100	24.7	23.3	20.8
Food-products machinery	26	44.6	34.4	18.3
Forgings, iron and steel	167	46.0	41.9	38.0
Foundries, iron and steel	620	46.8	42.9	49.7
Furniture, except metal	56	38.2	30.4	23.7
General industrial machinery	687	27.0	25.0	19.7
Glass	29	18.5	18.9	20.5
Guns and related equipment	161	18.2	17.7	12.7
Hardware	32	24.6	24.1	24.3
Iron and steel	224	10.5	10.1	10.4
Knit goods	29	11.3	10.7	7.7
Leather	24	33.9	25.8	30.2
Machine shops, general	155	25.3	[6] 30.7	(4)
Metalworking machinery	877	20.4	20.1	21.8
Motor vehicles	144	13.8	14.1	11.3
Motor-vehicle parts	63	28.8	25.8	31.9
Nonferrous-metal products	378	23.4	24.9	23.6
Paints and varnishes	45	18.2	20.6	17.4
Paper	220	35.7	32.9	26.5
Paper and pulp (integrated)	78	27.3	26.4	25.4
Petroleum refining	163	12.5	12.8	10.7
Planing mills	41	50.9	58.3	37.6
Plate fabrication and boiler-shop products	79	53.4	[7] 47.4	(4)
Plumbers' supplies	26	20.8	19.0	20.1
Pottery	8	17.2	21.9	15.5
Pulp	24	32.7	31.4	29.5
Radios and phonographs	204	8.0	7.7	5.9
Railroad equipment	40	20.4	21.6	17.4
Rayon and allied products (chemical)	17	4.9	8.1	8.4
Rubber boots and shoes	13	16.8	13.1	8.6
Rubber tires	41	13.3	13.8	11.9
Sawmills	28	67.3	65.3	61.7
Set-up boxes	237	19.4	17.1	13.3
Sheet-metal work	40	26.5	[5] 33.5	(4)
Shipbuilding	217	30.2	30.3	33.1
Sighting and fire-control equipment	42	6.9	6.7	7.2
Slaughtering and meat packing	209	37.8	36.5	44.8
Small arms	59	11.9	11.0	9.1
Smelting and refining of nonferrous metals	196	31.2	30.3	29.4
Soap and glycerin	20	10.2	9.1	10.3
Stamped and pressed metal products	301	34.8	33.0	20.6
Steam fittings and apparatus	66	45.8	35.5	39.7
Stoves and furnaces, not electric	52	32.5	36.6	33.7
Tanks, military	24	14.3	13.1	9.3
Tank parts, military	70	19.3	21.4	7.7
Textile machinery	11	13.1	15.6	18.3
Tin cans and other tinware	41	16.7	19.0	20.3
Tools, except edge tools	51	37.8	25.6	24.3
Wire and wire products	162	21.6	22.9	21.6
Woolen goods	138	22.1	19.9	17.9

[1] The frequency rate represents the average number of disabling industrial injuries for each million employee-hours worked.
[2] A few industries have been omitted from this table because the coverage for the month did not amount to 1,000,000 or more employee-hours worked.
[3] Computed from all reports received for the month. Not based on identical plants in successive months.
[4] Not available.
[5] Cumulative from June 1.
[6] Cumulative from May 1.
[7] Cumulative from Apr. 1.

Public Health in Great Britain in 1942–43

THE general health of the British nation was remarkably well maintained during 1942, according to the annual report of the Ministry of Health for the year 1942–43.[1] The year was remarkable for a series of favorable records in the vital statistics, but, on the other hand, claims for sickness benefit under the National Health Insurance Scheme showed a substantial increase, and there were other indications of an increase in short-term sickness. There is no doubt, it is said, that the war effort has imposed a severe strain on the health of the people, which on the whole has been withstood with astonishing success.

The general death rate among the civilian population was remarkably low. Among females the standardized rate was 6.84 per 1,000 living, or 8 percent below that of any previous year, while among males the rate of 9.52 was also the lowest recorded. Mortality of children under the age of 5 years declined by 2 percent during the year, and at the school ages of 5 to 15 the low level reached in 1939 was regained. There was an increase in the total number of live births; the crude rate of infant mortality was the lowest on record; and the maternal mortality rate also reached a record low level.

Incidence of Disease and Maintenance of Health

New low records in the numbers of deaths were established for many groups of diseases. Pneumonia caused the greatest number of deaths from any one cause (20,831), but this was more than 2,500 below the number of deaths in 1939, the year of the lowest previous record since 1930. Deaths from influenza were less than half of those in 1941. Sulfonamide therapy has been responsible for the decline in deaths from a number of causes since 1938, and, in addition, these drugs saved the lives of many persons attacked by cerebrospinal fever during 1942. The diseases showing an increase in deaths were principally the diseases of later life. There was a remarkably low incidence of infectious disease during the year.

Many parts of the country reported an increase in minor illness, as evidenced by crowded surgeries and out-patient departments, more absenteeism caused by sickness, and more complaints by individuals of fatigue or feeling "run down." The sickness-benefit claims on approved societies, in all four quarters of the year, were materially above the pre-war average.

The increase in incidence of venereal diseases reported for the preceding year continued, though the rise was less steep. Stricter measures to cope with these diseases were taken during the year, and a publicity campaign was inaugurated with which the press and radio cooperated and which met with popular support.

There was a distinct check in the wartime increase in the death rate from tuberculosis. The number of deaths from respiratory tuberculosis in 1942 was 20,987, as compared with 23,633 the preceding year, the crude death rate being 506 per million population as compared with 570 in 1941. A somewhat comparable decrease occurred in the deaths from nonrespiratory tuberculosis. In spite of the more

[1] Great Britain Ministry of Health, Summary Report for the Year Ended March 31, 1943, London, 1943. (Cmd. 6468.)

favorable showing in the mortality rate for 1942 as compared with 1941, there was a rise of about 3 percent in the number of new cases reported, and it is said that under the trying conditions of total war, it is not unlikely the death rate will rise again. Two important steps taken during the year to deal with the tuberculosis problem were extension of the use of chest examinations through mass miniature radiography, and the payment of allowances to persons who leave remunerative employment to undertake treatment for pulmonary tuberculosis.[2]

Care of Mothers and Children

As already noted, there was an increase in the birth rate and a reduction in the infant mortality rate; the maternal mortality rate also fell.

The priority allowances of milk, eggs, and vitamin supplements for expectant and nursing mothers and for children, reported in 1941, were extended. Expectant mothers and all children under 5 are now entitled to cheap or free orange juice and cod-liver oil; previously these supplements were supplied only for children under the age of 2 years.

Institutional maternity accommodation was extended during the year, although there is still a shortage of such accommodation in some areas. Owing to shortage of materials and labor, new building cannot be carried on, and thus expansion has been through the extension of existing institutions in areas where the need is greatest.

Many additional nurseries for the children of woman workers were opened by the welfare authorities during the year. At the end of March 1943 there were 1,096 whole-time and 136 part-time nurseries in operation, as compared with 258 and 145, respectively, at the end of March 1942. Almost 400 new nurseries were in process of preparation.

Hospital Developments

Pre-war hospital resources were unrelated and haphazard in their distribution. The emergency hospital scheme put in effect since the war has developed a pattern of interrelated hospitals so organized that the patient is moved from one hospital to another where he can get the best form of treatment to meet his needs.

In order to develop a unified and nation-wide service capable of meeting all the needs of civilian war casualties and of the services, not only were existing facilities adapted and supplemented but personnel and equipment had to be distributed to the best advantage. Under this plan standards of care and treatment which were formerly attained in only a relatively few hospitals in the largest cities have been brought to all parts of the country. For example, there are 21 orthopedic centers in England and Wales providing all the facilities necessary for the treatment and rehabilitation of the most complicated cases. Specialized methods of treatment for various conditions and different types of injuries are provided in different centers. Where it is practicable, centers giving several types of treatment are grouped at one hospital so that the rehabilitation facilities may be used by all the patients. Most of these centers are situated at the large base hospitals outside vulnerable areas.

[1] For discussion of these, see Monthly Labor Review, September 1943 (p. 509).

Special provision for children evacuated to the reception areas has been made at 15 peripheral hospitals, where treatment for sick children is under the charge of specialists and nurses trained in children's hospitals.

Mobile teams made up from the medical, technical, and nursing personnel of the special centers, providing for head, chest, and plastic surgery and treatment of jaw injuries, have been formed to meet emergency needs arising from air-raid or other civilian and service casualties.

The gradual development of a specialist medical service on a regional basis, to cover the whole country, the report states, is perhaps one of the most striking and significant features of the emergency hospital scheme. The needs of the ordinary sick are taken care of under the emergency scheme, as well as the emergency cases. The development of the plan has resulted in improved standards of treatment for all classes of patients, and specialist medical and nursing staff and their essential equipment are no longer the privilege of patients in a few teaching hospitals only, but are available to the patient in his local hospital or special center.

Housing Conditions

New Dwelling Units in Nonfarm Areas, First 9 Months of 1943

Summary

CONSTRUCTION was started on 275,700 new nonfarm family dwelling units during the first 9 months of 1943. Slightly over half (138,381) were privately financed, while during the same months of 1942 almost two-thirds of the family dwelling units started were begun under the private war-housing program of the National Housing Agency.

Contracts were awarded during the first 9 months of 1943 for the construction of publicly financed projects to provide accommodations for 137,319 war workers' families,[1] as compared to the 142,459 families accommodated in units put under contract during the corresponding months of 1942.

Allowing for the general understatement of construction costs by the builders, it appears that the 275,700 family dwelling units started in this period of 1943 will involve expenditures of approximately $757,000,000, somewhat more than half the $1,384,000,000 estimated aggregate construction cost of the 398,500 units started during the first 9 months of 1942.

In addition to the family dwelling units, Federal construction contracts were awarded during the first 9 months of 1943 for dormitories to accommodate 43,087 persons and trailer projects to include 23,037 trailers. Contracts were also awarded by the Home Owners' Loan Corporation for the conversion of 4,799 structures to provide 21,620 additional family units.

During the first 9 months of 1943, the number of privately financed family dwelling units in 1-family houses declined 52 percent from the corresponding total for the first 9 months of 1942; 2-family units declined 1 percent; and multifamily units, 19 percent. One-family dwellings comprised about 74 percent of all privately financed units started during the first 9 months of 1943; 2-family dwellings accounted for 10 percent; and multifamily units, for 16 percent. During the same period in 1942, 84 percent of the new private units were of the 1-family type, 5 percent were of the 2-family type, and 11 percent were in multifamily buildings.

Of the publicly financed family dwelling units put under contract during the first 9 months of 1943, 96 percent were in temporary, mostly 1-family row-type, structures. During the same months of

[1] In addition to the 137,319 new family dwelling units, 2,559 slum-clearance units begun before 1943 were designated as war housing, and contracts were awarded by the Federal Public Housing Authority for the conversion of existing structures to provide 553 units, making a total of 140,431 Federally financed family dwelling units provided for war workers during the first 9 months of 1943, exclusive of the Home Owners' Loan Corporation program.

1942, 31 percent of the new units were in permanent structures, 43 percent were demountable units, and 26 percent were temporary units.

Scope of Report

These estimates cover the construction of all new family dwelling units in the nonfarm area of the United States. The "nonfarm area" of the United States consists of all urban and rural nonfarm places. The urban designation is applied to all incorporated places with a population of 2,500 or more in 1940, and, by special rule, to a small number of unincorporated civil divisions. Rural nonfarm construction includes all construction for nonagricultural use in unincorporated areas and incorporated places of less than 2,500 population. Hence, urban construction is classified by location, whereas rural nonfarm construction is classified according to the intended use of buildings.

Building-permit reports collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics provide the basic information for current estimates of residential construction. The Bureau began the regular collection of these data in 1920, at first including only the larger cities. Since that time coverage has been steadily expanded until it now includes more than 2,400 cities and 1,000 rural incorporated places. In addition, since 1939, a small number of counties have reported building permits issued for their unincorporated areas. Valuable supplementary data, particularly with respect to rural construction, were made available for the period January 1940 through August 1942 by the Defense Housing Survey, a joint enterprise of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the National Housing Agency, and the Work Projects Administration.

Since building permits are issued when construction work is about to start, estimates derived from permits represent the future dwelling-unit capacity of buildings upon which construction was started in the period specified. No attempt is made here to estimate the total family accommodations gained by alterations and conversions or those lost by demolitions.

Volume of Residential Construction [2]

Construction was started on an estimated 275,700 new nonfarm family dwelling units during the first 9 months of 1943, almost a third less than were started during the first 9 months of 1942. Slightly over half of these new units were privately financed and the remainder were in publicly financed war-housing projects.

The number of privately financed dwelling units started during the first 9 months of 1943 was 46 percent less than the number started during the same months of 1942, and 72 percent less than were started during the first 9 months of 1941, when private residential construction was at its pre-war peak. Between the summer of 1941 and the spring of 1943, private activity declined rapidly, at first because of material shortages and uncertainty with respect to expected governmental action. Since April 9, 1942, when the War Production Board issued Conservation Order L–41 halting nonessential construction, private activity has been limited to war housing for which there appears to be permanent need.

Thus far throughout 1943, privately financed new dwelling units have been started at an annual rate of about 175,000 units. It seems

[2] For annual volume, 1920–1942, see Monthly Labor Review, April 1942 (p. 654).

probable, on the basis of current information, that this level of activity will be maintained, at least for the remainder of 1943.

Between September 1941 and September 1943, applications for priorities for the construction of 489,151 new privately financed family dwelling units were approved by WPB field offices, including 40,000 units started before September 1941 which required priorities assistance for completion. By the end of September 1943, 286,915 of these units had been completed and 83,561 more were under construction. In addition, priorities for the conversion of existing structures to provide accommodations for 52,036 families had been approved.

According to the Federal Housing Administration, 120,849 new privately financed units were started under the private war-housing program of the National Housing Agency during the first 9 months of 1943. This figure is based on builders' reports of construction progress and hence is not strictly comparable with an estimate based on building permits issued.

In contrast to privately financed activity, the number of publicly financed family dwelling units started during the first 9 months of 1943 was only 4 percent less than the number started during the corresponding 1942 period. However, over 60 percent of the 1943 units were placed under contract during the first 3 months, whereas less than one-sixth were to be built under contracts awarded during July, August, and September. By September 30, 1943, there were available for occupancy or being built, under the Federally financed war-housing program, 470,521 family dwelling units, 155,943 dormitory units, and trailer parks to accommodate 38,247 trailers. Projects containing approximately 38,000 family dwelling units, 7,400 dormitory units, and 6,200 trailers, which were not under contract on September 30, had also been assigned for development. In addition to this program, the Home Owners' Loan Corporation awarded contracts during the first 9 months of 1943 for the conversion of 4,799 structures to provide 21,620 additional family units, and almost 40,000 additional units had been programmed for conversion.

Comparison by Population Groups

Fewer new family dwelling units were started in each of the urban population groups and the rural nonfarm area during the first 9 months of 1943 than during the same months of 1942. The urban and rural nonfarm totals declined 29 and 33 percent, respectively. The largest drop, 41 percent, was in cities with populations of over half a million, while cities in the 5,000-to-10,000-population class declined the least, 12 percent.

All population groups shared in the 46-percent decline in the number of privately financed units started during the first 9 months of 1943 as compared to 1942, the decreases ranging from 30 percent for cities of 100,000 to 500,000 population to 52 percent for the rural nonfarm area. The number of publicly financed units put under contract increased over the totals for the first 9 months of 1942 in 4 city-size groups, but these gains were more than offset by declines in the other three urban classes and in the rural nonfarm area.

Both privately and publicly financed units were somewhat more commonly situated in urban than in rural nonfarm areas during 1943 than during 1942. War-housing policies, which encourage the use of improved sites and restrict locations, are chiefly responsible for this.

One-family dwellings comprised about 74 percent of all privately financed dwellings started during the first 9 months of 1943; 2-family dwellings accounted for 10 percent, and multifamily units for 16 percent. During the same period in 1942, 84 percent of the new privately financed units were of the 1-family type, 5 percent were of the 2-family type, and 11 percent were in multifamily structures. The greatly increased proportions of privately financed 2-family and multifamily units result primarily from wartime restrictions on building materials, which encourage the construction of these types. Details of the new dwelling units by source of funds, type of structure, and population group are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*New Dwelling Units in Nonfarm Areas, First 9 Months of 1942 and 1943, by Population Group, Source of Funds, and Type of Structure*

Area and population group (1940 census)	Total new dwelling units		New dwelling units financed by—									
			Public funds		Private funds							
					All types		1-family		2-family [1]		Multifamily [2]	
	First 9 months of—											
	1943	1942	1943	1942	1943	1942	1943	1942	1943	1942	1943	1942
All nonfarm areas	275,700	398,500	137,319	142,459	138,381	256,041	103,088	215,635	13,356	13,487	21,937	26,919
Percent of change, 1942 to 1943	−30.8		−3.6		−46.0		−52.2		−1.0		−18.5	
Urban (cities)	159,700	225,900	69,720	69,664	89,980	156,236	58,565	117,995	12,130	12,377	19,285	25,864
500,000 and over	29,700	50,500	11,114	14,473	18,586	36,027	8,900	19,518	3,307	3,787	6,379	12,722
100,000–500,000	36,700	48,700	13,548	15,433	23,152	33,267	14,596	26,930	3,641	2,833	4,915	3,504
50,000–100,000	18,100	24,400	8,790	7,823	9,310	16,577	5,120	11,873	1,185	1,880	3,005	2,824
25,000–50,000	17,200	22,200	8,872	5,161	8,328	17,039	5,751	12,023	887	1,328	1,690	3,688
10,000–25,000	30,800	47,800	16,954	22,436	13,846	25,364	10,499	22,626	1,629	1,217	1,718	1,521
5,000–10,000	17,100	19,400	7,228	2,301	9,872	17,099	7,511	14,959	1,135	981	1,226	1,159
2,500–5,000	10,100	12,900	3,214	2,037	6,886	10,863	6,188	10,066	346	351	352	446
Rural nonfarm areas	116,000	172,600	67,599	72,795	48,401	99,805	44,523	97,640	1,226	1,110	2,652	1,055

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Of the 137,319 publicly financed units put under contract during the first 9 months of 1943, about 96 percent were to be temporary units, chiefly of the 1-family row type. During the first 9 months of 1942, 31 percent of the publicly financed units started were in structures of permanent type, 43 percent were demountable or semipermanent dwellings, and the remaining 26 percent were temporary units.

Comparison by Geographic Divisions

The number of family dwelling units started during the third quarter of 1943 increased over the second quarter totals by 12 percent in the South Atlantic States, 26 percent in the East South Central States, and 48 percent in the Mountain States. The number started remained unchanged in the New England States, but in the remaining divisions declined from 1 percent in the East North Central States to 36 percent in the West South Central States. The relative changes are still more pronounced when the number of units started in each region during the third quarters of 1942 and 1943 are compared.

Increases between these two periods ranged from 5 percent in the East North Central States to 130 percent in the Mountain States, while the number of new units declined from 6 percent in the West South Central States to 55 percent in the New England States.

TABLE 2.—*New Dwelling Units in Nonfarm Areas, Third Quarter 1942, Second and Third Quarters 1943, by Geographic Division, Source of Funds, and Type of Structure*

Geographic division	Total new dwelling units			New dwelling units financed by—					
				Public funds			Private funds		
							All types		
	Third quarter 1943	Second quarter 1943	Third quarter 1942	Third quarter 1943	Second quarter 1943	Third quarter 1942	Third quarter 1943	Second quarter 1943	Third quarter 1942
All divisions	75,200	82,100	94,500	22,612	30,487	30,712	52,588	51,613	63,788
New England	2,900	2,900	6,400	600	712	3,578	2,300	2,188	2,822
Middle Atlantic	6,800	7,900	11,500	1,930	1,680	1,531	4,870	6,220	9,969
East North Central	15,100	15,200	14,400	3,284	3,596	390	11,816	11,604	14,010
West North Central	2,600	2,900	3,400	1,020	1,188	0	1,580	1,712	3,400
South Atlantic	15,800	14,100	16,900	5,112	2,696	5,225	10,688	11,404	11,675
East South Central	3,900	3,100	3,200	1,792	942	1,254	2,108	2,158	1,946
West South Central	7,600	11,900	8,100	816	5,541	1,350	6,784	6,359	6,750
Mountain	4,600	3,100	2,000	2,162	1,445	487	2,438	1,655	1,513
Pacific	15,900	21,000	28,600	5,896	12,687	16,897	10,004	8,313	11,703

Geographic division	New dwelling units financed by—								
	Private funds, by type of structure								
	1-family			2-family [1]			Multifamily [2]		
All divisions	37,365	38,759	53,032	5,662	5,005	3,235	9,561	7,849	7,521
New England	1,478	1,511	2,520	122	100	83	700	577	219
Middle Atlantic	3,381	4,835	7,772	510	913	1,029	979	472	1,168
East North Central	8,512	9,295	12,155	1,513	1,193	1,136	1,791	1,116	719
West North Central	1,225	993	3,078	214	337	98	141	382	224
South Atlantic	6,014	7,176	7,183	1,339	1,152	215	3,335	3,076	4,277
East South Central	1,706	1,932	1,833	165	111	95	237	115	18
West South Central	5,555	5,616	6,467	799	365	223	430	378	60
Mountain	2,284	1,387	1,294	42	28	56	112	240	163
Pacific	7,210	6,014	10,730	958	806	300	1,836	1,493	673

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Privately financed units started were more numerous during the third quarter than during the second quarter of 1943 in five regions: New England, East North Central, West South Central, Mountain, and Pacific. The largest relative increase, 47 percent, was in the Mountain States. This region was also the only region in which the number of units started during the third quarter of 1943 was significantly greater than the number started during the comparable months of 1942.

Over a fourth of the publicly financed units put under construction during the third quarter of 1943 were in the Pacific States. During the second quarter of 1943 and the third quarter of 1942, 42 and 55 percent, respectively, of such units were in these States. Almost a fourth more of the publicly financed units started during the third quarter of 1943 were in the South Atlantic States and almost a sixth in the East North Central States.

All regions except the Mountain States shared in the 30-percent drop in the number of privately financed 1-family units started during the third quarter of 1943 as compared to the same period of 1942. The only significant decreases, between these periods, were in the volume of privately financed 2-family units in the Middle Atlantic States, and in the number of multifamily units in the Middle and South Atlantic States. Over half of the privately financed 2-family and multifamily units started during the third quarter of 1943 were in the East North Central and South Atlantic States. Two-fifths of the privately financed 2-family and two-thirds of the multifamily units started during the third quarter of 1942 were in these same areas.

Estimated Permit Valuations

The permit valuation of the 275,700 new nonfarm family dwelling units started during the first 9 months of 1943 was estimated to aggregate $693,997,000, or 55 percent of the $1,258,007,000 estimated for the 9 months of 1942 (table 3). Of the 1943 total, the 138,381 privately financed units accounted for $404,960,000 (58 percent) and the 137,319 publicly financed units for the remainder, $289,037,000. The increased proportion of 2-family and multifamily units, resulting from material restrictions and construction-cost limitations, is reflected in the 8-percent reduction in the average permit valuation of the privately financed units between 1942 and 1943. The average construction cost of publicly financed units was a third less during the first 9 months of 1943 than during the comparable 1942 period, as a result of the shift in emphasis from permanent and demountable units in 1942 to temporary units in 1943.

When comparing the private and public valuations shown in table 3, allowance must be made for the general understatement of construction costs by private builders when applying for building permits. This understatement is estimated to average about 15.5 percent of the permit valuation. After making this allowance, it is estimated that construction of the 275,700 units started during the first 9 months of 1943 will aggregate approximately $757,000,000.

TABLE 3.—*Estimated Permit Valuation of New Dwellings in Nonfarm Areas, First 9 Months of 1942 and 1943, by Geographic Division and Source of Funds*

Geographic division	Estimated permit valuation (in thousands of dollars)					
	Total		Private funds		Public funds [1]	
	First 9 months of—					
	1943	1942	1943	1942	1943	1942
All divisions	693,997	1,258,007	404,960	810,229	289,037	447,778
New England	30,346	69,503	21,542	41,875	8,804	27,628
Middle Atlantic	79,970	191,737	48,513	145,568	31,457	46,169
East North Central	162,801	247,813	118,468	202,185	44,333	45,628
West North Central	22,020	62,221	12,765	47,014	9,255	15,207
South Atlantic	126,564	228,809	75,436	120,119	51,128	108,690
East South Central	18,330	50,734	9,372	26,567	8,958	24,167
West South Central	52,746	83,085	30,813	71,101	21,933	11,984
Mountain	44,247	33,500	15,171	17,950	29,076	15,550
Pacific	156,973	290,605	72,880	137,850	84,093	152,755

[1] Contract values.

Children Under 18 in Families in the United States, 1940

OF approximately 35,100,000 families [1] in the United States in 1940, almost 49 percent had no children under 18 years of age, 21.3 percent had only 1 child, and 14.5 percent had 2 children under that age. Families with 3 or more children under 18 constituted 15.3 percent of all families. In general, urban families had fewer young children than did rural families. Fifty-three percent of the urban families, 46.5 percent of the rural nonfarm families, and 39.4 percent of the rural farm families had no children under 18. The corresponding proportions of families with 3 or more children were respectively 11.2 percent, 17.2 percent, and 25.6 percent.

The accompanying table is part of a recent analysis of Sixteenth Census returns showing the general characteristics of families in the United States in 1940.[2]

Distribution of Families in the United States, 1940, by Sex of Head of Family, Number of Children Under 18, and Region

Area, and number of children under 18 years of age	Number of families			Percent of families		
	Total	Male head	Female head	Total	Male head	Female head
United States	35,087,440	29,734,200	5,353,240	100.0	100.0	100.0
No children	17,164,680	13,432,400	3,732,280	48.9	45.2	69.7
1 child	7,467,960	6,683,260	784,700	21.3	22.5	14.7
2 children	5,082,520	4,657,760	424,760	14.5	15.7	7.9
3 or more children	5,372,280	4,960,780	411,500	15.3	16.7	7.7
Urban	20,749,200	16,947,200	3,802,000	100.0	100.0	100.0
No children	11,001,900	8,258,740	2,743,160	53.0	48.7	72.2
1 child	4,538,760	3,987,220	551,540	21.9	23.5	14.5
2 children	2,892,940	2,608,980	283,960	13.9	15.4	7.5
3 or more children	2,315,600	2,092,260	223,340	11.2	12.3	5.9
Rural nonfarm	7,261,340	6,259,860	1,001,480	100.0	100.0	100.0
No children	3,376,860	2,693,360	683,500	46.5	43.0	68.2
1 child	1,542,920	1,401,600	141,320	21.2	22.4	14.1
2 children	1,093,880	1,011,160	82,720	15.1	16.2	8.3
3 or more children	1,247,680	1,153,740	93,940	17.2	18.4	9.4
Rural farm	7,076,900	6,527,140	549,760	100.0	100.0	100.0
No children	2,785,920	2,480,300	305,620	39.4	38.0	55.6
1 child	1,386,280	1,294,440	91,840	19.6	19.8	16.7
2 children	1,095,700	1,037,620	58,080	15.5	15.9	10.6
3 or more children	1,809,000	1,714,780	94,220	25.6	26.3	17.1

[1] The term family as defined in the 1930 and 1940 censuses is limited to private families and excludes the small number (about 80,000) of institutions, hotels, lodging houses, and other quasi households. A private family comprises a family head and all other persons in the home who are related to the head by blood, marriage, or adoption, and who share the common housekeeping arrangements. A person living alone is counted as a one-person private family.

[2] United States. Bureau of the Census. Sixteenth Census of the United States: 1940. Series PH-4. No. 1. Type of family and age of family head for States: 1940. Washington, March 29, 1943.

Distribution of Families in the United States, 1940, by Sex of Head of Family, Number of Children Under 18, and Region—Continued

Area, and number of children under 18 years of age	Number of families			Percent of families [1]		
	Total	Male head	Female head	Total	Male head	Female head
Regions						
Northeastern States	9,543,400	7,972,000	1,571,400			
No children	4,861,320	3,708,860	1,152,460			
1 child	2,072,820	1,856,840	215,980			
2 children	1,394,740	1,279,440	115,300			
3 or more children	1,214,520	1,126,860	87,660			
North Central States	11,025,560	9,480,220	1,545,340			
No children	5,613,860	4,471,260	1,142,600			
1 child	2,327,100	2,125,100	202,000			
2 children	1,567,100	1,460,540	106,560			
3 or more children	1,517,500	1,423,320	94,180			
Southern States—Total	10,349,420	8,879,300	1,560,120			
No children	4,357,140	3,429,760	927,380			
1 child	2,241,760	1,962,120	279,640			
2 children	1,575,960	1,416,340	159,620			
3 or more children	2,174,560	1,981,080	193,480			
Southern States—Nonwhite	2,424,960	1,897,220	527,740			
No children	1,090,100	813,320	276,780			
1 child	441,660	342,720	98,940			
2 children	297,900	238,140	59,760			
3 or more children	595,300	503,040	92,260			
Western States	4,169,060	3,492,680	676,380			
No children	2,332,360	1,822,520	509,840			
1 child	826,280	739,200	87,080			
2 children	544,720	501,440	43,280			
3 or more children	465,700	429,520	36,180			

[1] Percentages not given in Census source.

Commenting upon the dwindling number of young children in the average family, the U. S. Bureau of the Census reports that 65.9 percent of families in 1940 had no children under 10 years of age, as compared with 58.8 percent of the families in 1930. Families with 3 or more children under 10 constituted only 6.4 percent of all the families in 1940, the corresponding percentage for 1930 being 10.2.

Displacement of European Populations

DURING the present war vast movements of the population of the warring and invaded countries in Europe have taken place. These movements include the displacement of war refugees and evacuees as a direct result of the war and, as an indirect result, the redistribution or dispersal of the population within the territories occupied by the German armies, to conform to German political or racial policies or manpower needs. A recent report by the International Labor Office,[1] on which this article is based, traces the extent of these movements as far as this is possible from available data. It is estimated that more than 30 million men, women, and children have been torn from their homes and their native soil since the beginning of the war. This number does not include millions of persons who, without having left their native countries, are not living at home because they have been conscripted for labor service or have been evacuated from bombed cities and coastal defense areas.

The transfers of population which have taken place present a complicated pattern. From each of the countries successively

[1] The Displacement of Population in Europe, by Eugene M. Kulischer. Montreal, Canada, International Labor Office, 1943. (Studies and reports, Series O, No. 8.)

coming under the totalitarian regime, large numbers of refugees fleeing from political and racial persecution surged into the neighboring countries. With Germany's conquest of the major part of Europe, the rulers of that country gained a free hand to carry out the transfers they considered necessary to the accomplishment of their plans.

* * * The mass displacements of non-German populations were matched by the transplantation of Germans or peoples of Germanic origin into the zones assigned to German settlement. Population exchanges were arranged between Germany and neighboring or allied countries. The acknowledged aim of the German Government is to redistribute the population of Europe so as to establish German influence and leadership over the largest possible area.

Even before the war the necessities of the rearmament program, especially in Germany, led to an increase in internal migration movements. Before the war the labor reserves in each of the territories which eventually came under German domination had been absorbed by the growing needs of munitions industries, and this process has been intensified during the war. Germany has been able to draw upon the enormous reserves of labor in the camps of war prisoners, in the occupied territories, and in the territory of its allies. From every direction a continuous steam of workers has been directed toward the Reich, while increasing numbers of German officials, technicians, and employees have gone to the occupied countries to administer them and exploit their economic resources. Germany's economic and military needs are paramount throughout the area under German control, and persons who are capable of work are being recruited, transferred, and redistributed according to these needs.

Although it is difficult to separate all these cross-currents of migration into an intelligible pattern, three main categories may be distinguished among the masses of people involved in these movements.

* * * The first consists of Germans and persons of German origin who have been moved into occupied countries since the beginning of the war. The second comprises non-Germans who left their homes under the threat of invasion or who have been the victims of wholesale transfer, deportation, or expulsion from the invaded territories. The third consists of prisoners of war and workers recruited individually in all the European countries under German occupation for work in Germany or in other occupied territories.

Migration Movements of the German People

After the last war there was a considerable movement of Germans who had been living either in territory detached from the Reich under the Treaty of Versailles or elsewhere, back to live within the new German frontiers. This movement was accentuated after the introduction of the Nazi regime in 1933. Simultaneously with Germany's first territorial conquests in 1938, however, this flow was reversed, and a migration of Germans beyond the old German frontiers to the areas annexed, occupied, or controlled by Germany, began. After the victorious eastward march of the German armies in 1939, there commenced a mass transplantation of people of German origin, living in eastern, southeastern, and southern Europe, to the newly enlarged territories of Greater Germany. Although German propaganda described the movement as a "return to the Fatherland" or "repatriation," most of these persons had no connection with the Reich, since they were nationals of other countries where they and their ancestors had lived, in some cases for centuries. Also, most of them were settled not in Germany but in foreign territories under German control.

A report of the German Resettlement Trust, for 1941, gave the number of persons covered by the repatriation schemes as 751,400. Of this number 600,000 had actually arrived in Greater Germany by the first part of 1942. However, many of the persons who were repatriated as ethnical Germans were of non-German origin, so that the racial aims of the resettlement were very incompletely attained, and the total number of approximately 275,000 employable persons gained as a result of these transfers was very small when compared with the millions of foreign workers now employed in Germany.

The movement of Germans across the borders of Germany proper has been mainly that of the German armies. There are millions of Germans from the Reich in the territories which have been conquered, but the great majority of them are directly connected with the military operations. In addition many persons, mostly women and children, have been evacuated to the occupied countries to escape air attacks. These movements, however, do not constitute a real migratory movement intended to enlarge the settlement area of the German people.

All these movements of Germans from the Reich have been controlled by the German Government in accordance with the necessities of war. In 1942, however, the evacuation resulting from the bombing of German cities caused mass dislocation of a different kind among the German population. Many factories were removed from the Ruhr to Austria in order to escape British air raids, and after the heavy bombing of Cologne and other industrial centers the removal of factories and the evacuation and flight of the population began on a grand scale.

A conservative estimate of the German civilians who have migrated from the Reich into territories occupied or controlled by Germany places the number at 2,280,000. Of these 300,000 had gone to Alsace-Lorraine and 200,000 to other parts of France; 200,000 to Belgium, Netherlands, Denmark, and Norway; 400,000 to Bohemia-Moravia; 80,000 to Slovakia; 500,000 to the Incorporated Polish Provinces; 300,000 to the General Government (Poland); and 300,000 to other German-occupied eastern territories.

Movements of Non-German Populations

The movements of non-German populations during the war period are largely a continuation and extension of the forced migrations characterizing the pre-war years, when they arose successively in all the countries which came under a totalitarian regime. The first panic flight of refugees from Germany took place immediately after the establishment of the National-Socialist Government; the second after the promulgation of the anti-Jewish Nürnberg laws of September 15, 1935; and the third after the annexation of Austria and the pogroms of November 1938. At first some of the countries opened their frontiers to the refugees, and emigration to Palestine was permitted, but later, because of the world depression, restrictions were placed on the admission of these immigrants to those countries. A further hindrance to emigration arose from the German financial policy as regards emigrants, which practically amounted to expropriation. Although the departure of Jews was encouraged, practically all their possessions were confiscated. However, in spite of all these obstacles, a great many Jews and others were able to emigrate. The total Jewish emi-

gration from Germany up to the outbreak of the war is estimated at from 360,000 to 370,000, and including non-Aryan Christians and political emigrants it was estimated that 400,000 refugees had left Germany between 1933 and October 1939. Many of these emigrants did not escape persecution, however, as they went to countries which later came under German domination.

Another mass movement of refugees took place as a result of the Spanish civil war. At one time there were about 450,000 Spanish refugees in France. Some of these emigrated to Latin America and more gradually returned to Spain, but in February 1940 there were still 140,000 in France.

As the war has progressed, overseas emigration has practically come to a standstill, but mass displacements of population within the European continent have been taking place among the peoples of the countries invaded by Germany.

The countries suffering the largest transfers of population are Poland and the Soviet Union. In Poland mass movements of the population have taken three main forms: (1) The flight of the Polish population before the German invasion in September 1939; (2) the expulsion of Poles from the western Polish provinces incorporated into the Reich; and (3) the transfer of the population of the eastern Polish provinces (Western Bielorussia and the Western Ukraine) to the eastern area of the Soviet Union, that was organized by the Soviet Government partly in 1939–40 after occupying these territories, but principally in the summer of 1941 on the eve of the German invasion. There were two other large movements of the Polish population—the recruitment of Polish workers for Germany and German-occupied territories, and the deportation of Polish Jews.

Many millions of Russians fled before the German armies when Russia was invaded in June 1941. As the Russian army retreated, the population was evacuated and the factories were removed. There are various estimates of the number of evacuees, but it appears probable that the grand total of persons moved from the old and the annexed territories in 1941 and 1942 was about 12 million.

Prior to the outbreak of the war, emigration of Jews from German territory was ostensibly encouraged, but with the extension of German conquests the aims of Germany's Jewish policy were widened to embrace the "liberation of all Europe from the Jewish yoke." Many of the deported Jews were sent to labor camps. The total number of Jews expelled and deported since September 1939 from Germany and countries under German occupation or control is estimated at 1,080,000.

It is difficult to present the population changes because of the frontier changes and the transfer of whole territories from one national sovereignty to another. Also, in some territories there have been successive incoming and outgoing movements and it is impossible to tell how far the same people were involved. A third difficulty results from the variety of the population classes transferred. "In many cases certain national or ethnical groups were specifically affected, as, for instance, the Jews in all the countries under Axis control, and certain national minorities transferred or exchanged by several of the countries of southeastern Europe. In others, and in particular in the case of the flight of war refugees and evacuation, every class of the population was involved in the movement."

The following table shows the movements of non-German populations as a result of the European war.

Movements of Non-German Populations

From—	Number of persons	To—
Germany (including Austria)	170,000 Jews	General Government (Poland).
	50,000 Jews	Overseas.
Germany (Baden and Palatinate)	9,000 Jews	Unoccupied France.
Bohemia-Moravia	10,000 Jews	Overseas.
Slovakia	130,000 Czechs	Bohemia-Moravia.
	60,000 Jews	Eastern Galicia.
	10,000 Jews	Hungary.
Hungarian-annexed Slovak territory	60,000–80,000 Slovaks	Remaining part of Slovakia.
Hungarian-annexed Subcarpathia	20,000–30,000 Czechs and Slovaks.	Bohemia-Moravia and Slovakia.
	20,000 Jews	Galicia.
German-occupied Poland (frontiers of 1940).	40,000 (including Jews)	France, America, Palestine and other countries, through Rumania and Hungary.
	9,000 (including 3,000 Jews)	Hungary.
	4,000 (including 1,600 Jews)	Rumania.
	50,000 (including 15,000 Jews)	Baltic States.
	300,000 (including 200,000 Jews).	Soviet-occupied Western Bielorussia and Western Ukraine.
Incorporated Provinces	1,660,000 (including 460,000 Jews).	General Government (Poland).
General Government (Poland)	30,000–40,000 Bielorussians and Ukrainians.	Soviet-occupied Western Bielorussia and Western Ukraine.
Western Bielorussia and Western Ukraine (frontiers of 1940).	1,500,000 (including 500,000 Jews).	Eastern U. S. S. R. (113,000 beyond, to Iran, India and Africa).
Finland	20,000 children	Sweden.
Soviet-annexed Karelia	180,000	Inner Finland.
Lithuania	2,000	Reich.
	66,000 (including 10,000 Jews)	Eastern U. S. S. R.
Latvia	60,000 (including 15,000 Jews)	Do.
Estonia	61,000 (including 5,000 Jews)	Do.
Memel	21,000 Lithuanians and Russians.	Lithuania.
Denmark	1,000–2,000	German-occupied Soviet territory.
Norway	500–1,000	Do.
	1,000 Jews	General Government (Poland).
	9,000	Sweden.
Netherlands	2,400	England.
	5,000	France.
	10,000	Incorporated Polish Provinces.
	10,000–30,000	German-occupied Soviet territory.
	80,000 Jews	German-occupied Poland.
	2,000	Overseas.
Belgium	15,000	England.
	2,000–5,000	German-occupied Soviet area.
	1,000 Jews	Northern France.
	50,000 Jews	German-occupied Poland.
	15,000 (including Jews)	France and overseas.
Alsace-Lorraine	270,000 (including 22,000 Jews).	Unoccupied France.
	200,000	Reich.
Other parts of France	70,000 Jews	Incorporated Polish Provinces and General Government.
	24,000 (including Jews)	Spain and Switzerland.
	50,000 (including Jews)	North Africa, England, and overseas.
Coastal areas of France, Belgium, and Netherlands.	1,000,000	Inland.
Hungarian Transylvania	202,000 Rumanians	Rumania.
Austrian Carinthia	10,000 Slovenes	Unidentified.
German-annexed Slovenia	10,000 Slovenes	Italian-annexed Slovenia.
	30,000 Slovenes	Croatia.
	26,000 Slovenes	Old Serbia.
	45,000 Slovenes	Reich.
Italian-annexed Slovenia	35,000 Slovenes	Italy.
Italian-annexed Dalmatia and the Croatian coastal area.	57,000 Yugoslavs	Southern Italy.
Northern Macedonia (Bulgarian-occupied).	120,000 Serbs	Old Serbia.
Northern Macedonia, Bosnia, and Rumanian Transylvania.	17,600	Hungarian-annexed Yugoslav territory.
Croatia	250,000 Serbs and Croats	Old Serbia and Italy.
Serbia and Macedonia	70,000 Croats	Croatia.
Old Bulgaria	80,000 Bulgarians	Western Thrace.
South Dobruja	110,000 Rumanians	Rumania.
Western Thrace (Bulgarian-annexed)	80,000 Greeks	Remaining territory of Greece.
	25,000 Greeks	Old Bulgaria.
Greece	32,000	Middle East and beyond.
Old Rumania, Transylvania, and Dobruja.	80,000 Jews	Bessarabia and north Bukovina.

Movement of Non-German Populations—Continued

From—	Number of persons	To—
Bessarabia and north Bukovina	185,000 Jews	Rumanian-annexed Soviet territory (Transnistria).
Bessarabia and north Bukovina	100,000 Jews	Eastern U. S. S. R.
North Dobruja (Rumanian)	60,000 Bulgarians	South Dobruja.
Leningrad region (German-occupied)	10,000 Ingermanlanders	Finland.
German- and Rumanian-occupied old Soviet territory.	10,000,000 (including 1,100,000 Jews).	Eastern U. S. S. R.

Mobilization of Foreign Labor by Germany

The use of foreign labor, especially foreign agricultural labor, is traditional in Germany, and large numbers of "permanent migrants" and seasonal workers went to Germany before, during, and after the first World War. After 1930, the entry of foreign workers was stopped completely, and during the first of the 1930's there were relatively few foreign workers employed in the country. In 1937, however, because of the growing labor shortage resulting from the rearmament program, the German Government reopened the frontiers to seasonal workers. As a result Polish agricultural workers entered in considerable numbers, and in 1938 and 1939 large numbers of seasonal workers came from Italy. The annexation of Austria in 1938, followed by annexation of the Sudetenland and other territories and the defeat of Poland and Yugoslavia in 1939, opened the door still wider for immigration into Germany.

Up to 1938 most of the foreign workers entering Germany had been agricultural laborers, but after the annexation of Bohemia and Moravia large proportions of the immigrants were industrial workers. At the beginning of the war there were about half a million foreign workers in Germany, exclusive of the Sudetens and Austrians who had gone to work in the Old Reich. When war broke out, foreign labor began to pour into Germany and the number of these workers rose to several millions.

There were 24,461,000 wage-earning and salaried employees in Germany when war began, but mobilization caused an immediate shortage of labor, particularly in agriculture. The conquest of Poland opened up a new and abundant source of manpower. Prisoners of war were the first source drawn upon, and then compulsory labor service for Poles and for Jews was put into effect. These measures were followed by round-ups of the population, mass arrests, and deportations. The conquest of France, Denmark, and Norway, with the enormous booty of arms, munitions, and other materials, relieved the pressure on Germany's domestic labor and also opened up another reserve of manpower in the nearly 2 million prisoners who had been taken. About the same number of workers had been thrown out of employment in the countries of western Europe, as a result of the destruction and economic dislocation accompanying their defeat, and were therefore available to Germany. The political control of the countries of southeastern Europe secured by the Reich during the summer and autumn of 1940 increased the labor supply available.

At the beginning of 1941 the number of workers and salaried employees in Germany was about 24 million, but because of the numbers of men drafted into the armed forces, older workers and boys were being recruited, as well as women and more foreign labor.

By the beginning of 1942, the greatly increased demands for labor by Germany's war economy and the dwindling supply of highly skilled workers resulted in the adoption of uniform measures to get workers from the industries of occupied countries. These measures were adopted throughout Europe, but at different dates.

* * * Complete control over the distribution of war materials and fuel enabled all industries which were not working for Germany to be restricted or closed down. Public works and reconstruction work regarded as unnecessary for war purposes were suspended. Hours of work were compulsorily extended, industries were concentrated to save labor, employers were forced to dismiss their surplus workers, to make regular returns of their staffs to the German authorities, and to provide the latter with any workers they demanded.

The number of war prisoners and foreign civilians employed by Germany in the spring of 1942 was about 4 million, increasing thereafter to an estimated 6,500,000 at the beginning of 1943. The largest group of civilian workers consisted of Russians (1,500,000) and the next largest (1,300,000) of Poles. The numbers of civilian workers from the other occupied countries ranged from 2,000 brought from Norway to 300,000 each from Belgium and the Netherlands and 400,000 from France. The largest numbers of war prisoners employed by Germany were 1,150,000 Frenchmen, 500,000 Russians, and 133,000 Yugoslavs, while 77,000 Belgian and 56,000 Polish war prisoners had also been put to work by the Germans. Not all the prisoners captured by the Germans were sent to Germany, and there is likewise a great difference between the total number of foreign civilians employed by the Germans and the number employed within Germany. In general, the working population of the occupied countries is employed, either voluntariiy or under compulsion, in those countries themselves, but considerable numbers have been transferred to work on naval bases and fortifications along the coasts, while large numbers have been requisitioned to supply the needs of Germany's armies in Russia. The main and ever-growing stream of foreign workers, however, flows into the Reich, providing the economic and technical basis of the German armies.

Conclusion

The study points out that analysis of the post-war problems raised by the dispersal of the European peoples is beyond its scope, but it emphasizes the magnitude of the task involved in straightening out the population tangle caused by the present war. In most cases, it is stated, repatriation will be the obvious solution, but repatriation on so vast a scale will meet with tremendous difficulties.

Transport facilities will have to be provided for persons being repatriated; they will have to be fed, clothed, and given medical attention, and when they have returned to their countries their problems will merge into the general problem of rehabilitation of devastated areas, re-equipment of industry, and the reorientation of economic life as a whole. The problem of resettlement, moreover, cannot be wholly solved by European measures, it is pointed out, and in whatever way the problem is attacked—whether by repatriation, resettlement, or emigration—its solution is beyond the powers of any single country. "Millions of people have been victimized by a narrow nationalism which has had a total disregard for human beings. They can be helped only by international cooperation and organization."

Regulations on Unemployment Benefits for Salaried Employees in Chile[1]

PROVISIONS regulating participation in the special unemployment fund, established in 1937 for salaried employees of private firms,[2] were set forth by the Chilean Ministry of Labor in decree No. 42 of January 12, 1943.[3] The regulations relate to coverage of the fund, contributions, and amount and payment of benefits.

Contributions and Benefits

The fund apparently is supported entirely by a contribution of 1 percent made by employees from their monthly salaries. The employer makes the necessary deductions and forwards them to the special fund for unemployment relief.

Under the terms of the decree, an unemployed person is defined as any employee who has had employment as a salaried employee in private employment and has lost it for reasons beyond his control. If unemployed as defined in the regulations, an applicant must meet the following conditions in order to receive unemployment benefit: He must have made 12 monthly contributions (not necessarily continuous) to the unemployment fund, must register as unemployed, apply for unemployment relief within 6 months after losing employment, and be without funds to maintain himself and his family (this is assumed to be the case unless the contrary is proved).

The amount paid in benefits cannot be less than 75 percent or more than 4 times the living wage (*sueldo vital*) in the department (political division) in which the beneficiary was employed. Benefits are to be paid monthly, and to be in addition to the family allowance due to the employee.

An employee is not entitled to receive benefits if his contract has lapsed for any of certain causes specified in the Labor Code, if the application for benefit contains false information, or if he refuses a position which pays as much as 50 percent of the salary he formerly received. (A monthly salary of 3,500 pesos is the maximum to be used in determining this 50 percent.) In cases where the applicant has received benefit during the last 90 days or for 180 days within the period of a year, no benefit is payable until the applicant shall have made 12 additional contributions.

[1] Diario Oficial, February 6, 1943.
[2] Law No. 6020 of February 5, 1937, International Labor Office, Legislative Series 1937, Chile 1.
[3] Decree No. 42 repeals the earlier decree No. 99 of January 26, 1942. Amendments and a perfected text were approved in 1942. (Decree No. 720 of November 14, 1941, to consolidate texts of laws Nos. 6020 and 7064, International Labor Office, Legislative Series 1941, Chile 1; law No. 7280, September 11, 1942, and law No. 7295, September 30, 1942, International Labor Office, Legislative Series 1942, Chile 1.)

Social Guaranties in Costa Rica by Constitutional Amendment, 1943[1]

SPECIFIC social guaranties, including social-insurance features and protection of both urban and rural workers, are now provided in the constitution of Costa Rica by virtue of an amendment originally submitted to Congress by President Calderón Guardia in 1942, and promulgated on July 7, 1943.[2] Maximum working hours, minimum wages, paid vacations, collective bargaining, and machinery for settlement of industrial disputes are also included. These guaranties are included in a series of 15 articles, entitled "Social Guaranties," added to the constitution.

Labor conditions.—Every manual or intellectual worker will have the right to a minimum salary or wage covering the material, moral, and cultural needs of his home. Wages will be fixed periodically in accordance with the types of work and the special conditions of each region and of each intellectual, industrial, commercial, or agricultural activity. For equal work under identical conditions, equal pay shall be due, without distinction as between individuals or sexes.

The ordinary workday cannot exceed 8 hours (6 for night work), and the workweek cannot exceed 48 hours. Time and a half must be paid for overtime, except in very special cases determined by law. All manual or intellectual workers will have the right to annual paid vacations (not less than 2 weeks for each 50 weeks of continuous service) whose length and time will be regulated by law.

Under equal conditions employers shall be required to give preference to Costa Rican workers; the law will fix in such cases the minimum proportion of national workers, taking into account not only the number, but also the total pay roll.

Every employer must adopt measures for hygiene and safety of the workers in his establishments.

Both employers and workers have the right to organize for economic and social ends in accordance with the law. The right of lockout is recognized and also that of strike (except in the public service), in accordance with the regulation made by law, which must repudiate all acts of coercion or violence. Collective agreements concluded in accordance with law, between employers and legally organized unions of workers, shall have the force of law.

Disputes between employers and workers are to be settled by special machinery. All labor courts will be dependent upon the judicial power, and their number and organization are to be determined by law. For the most part, they are to be made up of a representative of the State (who is to preside), a representative of the employers, and a representative of the workers.

Social insurance.—A system of social insurance is established for the benefit of manual and intellectual workers, to be financed by compulsory contributions by the State, the employers, and the workers, and providing protection in case of illness, invalidity, maternity, old age, death, and such other contingencies as may be determined by law. The social insurance is to be administered by the Costa Rican Social Insurance Fund (*Caja Costarricense de Seguro Social*), a permanent institution which "will fulfill its functions in

[1] Data are from report of Fay Allen Des Portes, United States Ambassador to Costa Rica.
[2] In Costa Rica constitutional amendments take effect only after passage by two successive Congresses.

absolute independence of the Executive Power." The funds or reserves of social insurance cannot be transferred or employed for extraneous purposes, and are to be managed by the Fund in accordance with its organic law. The industrial-accident insurance is to be supported exclusively by employers and will be governed by special provisions.

Other provisions.—The State is to encourage the creation of cooperatives, aid in the construction of low-cost houses for urban workers, create a family estate (*patrimonio familiar*) for the rural workers, and undertake the technical training of workers, with a view to raising their efficiency and obtaining an increase in national production.

The rights and benefits which the amendment provides cannot be renounced. Enumeration of the rights specified does not exclude others which derive from the Christian principle of social justice. All these rights shall be applicable equally to all factors in the process of production, and shall be "regulated by a social and labor code with a view to establishing a permanent national solidarity."

Women in Industry

Women Workers in the Transportation Industry [1]

WHEN the war broke out in Europe in 1939 there were only 36,000 women employed by railroads in the United States, including those employed in clerical positions. By March 1943 the number of women on the pay rolls of the railroads had risen to 63,000, while the number of women workers in all lines of transportation had reached about 160,000. Of this number, 50,000 were employed in trucking; 11,000 in local transportation, including bus, street car, elevated railway, and subway; and 6,600 in intercity bus service. Approximately one-third of all air-line employees were women.

Since January 1943 the monthly rate of increase in women's employment in transportation has gone forward rapidly. However, the ratio of women engaged in the industry in this country in March was still substantially lower than the ratio in Great Britain. Experience in that country has shown there are few jobs that women cannot do successfully with adequate training, proper placement, and the right kind of supervision.

Because of their inexperience, most women, as a matter of course, were at first given clerical jobs or unskilled and semiskilled yard, track, shop, and traffic work, such as cleaning locomotives, cars, busses, and airplanes; section work; switch tending; scrap sorting; trucking parcels; and serving as conductors on streetcars and busses.

However, the variety of openings for women in the transportation industry is daily increasing. The railroads, intercity bus companies, and air lines are employing women as announcers, ticket sellers, information clerks, and parcel-checkroom attendants. In connection with air transportation, numbers of women are being used as meteorologist clerks (some also as meteorologists), teletype operators, aircraft communicators, airport tower-control operators, airway traffic-control operators, and draftsmen.

Women aid in overhauling engines, and do riveting, electric repairing, and fabric work. They service and load planes.

In numerous railroad shops women are assisting skilled boilermakers, car repairmen, painters, upholsterers, mechanics, and other experienced craftsmen.

Women are also succeeding at welding—even electric welding; they are operating turntables, car retarders, and electric trucks, and at certain stations are holding jobs as telegraphers or telephoners.

At the time of the preparation of this report, one railroad was employing women as ticket collectors and as brakemen on certain of its suburban lines.

A number of city bus companies use women as drivers. They are also employed as streetcar operators and conductors, and as auto mechanics in some of the bus

[1] Data are from Domestic Commerce (U. S. Department of Commerce, Washington), June 1943, p. 16: Women Make the Grade in Transportation, by Dorothy Sells, Office of Defense Transportation.

repair shops. Also, to some extent women are being used for mechanical work in automobile repair shops. In the trucking industry, women's work so far is mostly clerical, but some of these jobs, like that of rate clerk, over-short and damage clerk, and billing clerk were previously performed by men. As drivers of light pick-up and delivery trucks women have been tried with success; and at least one intercity bus company employs women drivers on the shorter runs.

Although there would seem to be few opportunities for women in pipe-line transportation, with the exception of clerical jobs, one company is reported to have placed a woman in its laboratory. Other companies will probably do so as more and more men are drafted.

In order to use women who have had next to no experience or training in many of the above-mentioned lines of work, the jobs have had to be subdivided into more simple processes, mechanical lifting devices have been installed, work benches, the size of tools, and working hours have been adjusted to meet the requirements of these new workers, and a thorough system of training has been established. It is stated that the improved performance of the women under proper conditions amply justifies these changes.

One of the best evidences that women have the ability to do maintenance work when they are properly selected and trained is the experience reported by a repair shop of one of the largest British motor carriers. In this shop 160 women, 8 men, and 12 boys have entirely overhauled the company's large number of heavy trucks. The women strip and clean both engine and chassis parts-make requisite repairs, reassemble the vehicles, and take them on road tests. The only work these women are not called upon to do is repairing springs, rewinding armatures, and cleaning battery plates, which jobs can be done more economically in another shop of the same company.

Women constitute approximately 10 percent of the mechanics repairing taxi and trainer planes at ferry pilot stations in Great Britain. They are engaged in the overhauling of instruments in the cockpit, of engines and air frames, and also in cleaning the planes, sometimes even taking them on test flights.

In Great Britain the only recognized limitations on the employment of women in transportation are—

(1) Lack of sufficient experience or training for highly skilled work; (2) lack of physical strength for jobs requiring very heavy lifting; (3) lack of nervous endurance for such jobs as driving a locomotive through a black-out or bombing, involving unusual strain and the public safety; and (4) lack of proper housing when the occupation, such as section work on far-distant railway lines, requires absence from home. On other work the performance of women is generally equal to that of men, and in some cases—inspection and viewing, tapping, creosoting ties, for example—it is even better.

Earnings of Women Factory Employees in New York

IN June 1943, women constituted 36.2 percent of the factory workers in New York State—the same ratio as in the previous month.[1] For June 1942, however, the proportion was only 28.1 percent.

Weekly earnings of women factory employees in June 1943 averaged $30.51—an increase of 37 percent over the average of $22.23 for June 1942. The weekly earnings of men employed in factories averaged

[1] Industrial Bulletin (New York Department of Labor, Industrial Commissioner, Albany), July 1943

$52.80 in June 1943, an advance of 21 percent as compared with the same month in the preceding year.

Average weekly wages for women in 7 localities in the State in June 1943 were as follows: Buffalo area, $35.91; Utica, $34.15; Binghamton, $32.37; Albany-Schenectady-Troy area, $31.01; Rochester, $30.74; Syracuse, $28.89; and Kingston-Newburgh-Poughkeepsie district, $25.98.

Absenteeism Among Women in Ordnance Plants in Great Britain[1]

ABSENTEEISM among women was the subject of a study carried out in two Royal ordnance factories in Great Britain during 1942. Results of the investigation indicate that the absenteeism was not of a regularly recurrent nature. It was as varied as individual needs and desires, and the large majority of those absent were away from work for varying lengths of time at irregular intervals.

Absenteeism was higher among married women than among single women. During the 6-week period studied the percentage of married women who were absent in factory A was 87.9 as compared with 82.1 for single women; in factory B, 75.9 percent of the married women and 63.1 percent of the single women were absent at some time. For married and single women combined, percentages for the two factories were 84.5 and 70.5.

The largest single proportion of the total time lost was due to full-week absences, which accounted for 38.5 percent in factory A and 52.8 percent in factory B. Single-shift absences were also responsible for a large part of the total time lost—34.9 and 24.8 percent respectively—and formed an even larger proportion (approximately two-thirds) of the number of individual absences.

The investigation further showed that absenteeism on the morning shift was higher than on the afternoon and night shifts. Total absences varied on different days of the week, being lowest on pay day and highest on Saturday, although regular Saturday absentees were few. Younger women lost more time than older women. Absences bore no relation to the traveling time taken to reach the place of work. The pattern of percentages in the two factories was very similar, although the total figures for absenteeism in factory A were much higher, probably because of its much larger size, its unusually rapid rate of growth, and its isolated position.

The investigation was made by the Industrial Health Research Board of the Medical Research Council. Periods of inquiry were 6 weeks each, ending August 11, 1942, and June 27, 1942, respectively. The report points out that the limitations of the study should be borne in mind and that the results (obtained from two factories only) should not be regarded as necessarily representative of the conditions in the ordnance industry as a whole.

[1] Data are from Medical Research Council, Industrial Health Research Board, A Study of Absenteeism Among Women, London, 1943 (Emergency report No. 4); and the Economist (London), September 4, 1943.

Labor Organizations

American Federation of Labor Convention, 1943[1]

RECOGNIZING that the Nation's primary concern is the winning of the war as rapidly as possible, and acknowledging fully the obligation of organized labor toward that end, American Federation of Labor leaders meeting in Boston for the sixty-third convention of that organization (October 4–14) nevertheless called for substantial modification in the attitude of many Government war agencies and of Congress toward the problems faced by wage earners in this war emergency. In general, the prevailing attitude among the delegates might be summarized in the words of the executive council: "We take sacrifice and changes as a matter of course and interpose objections only when principles are at stake."

The action of the convention during its 9 days of proceedings can be classified roughly as involving the relations of the American Federation of Labor to (1) labor's war effort, (2) specific Government agencies, (3) racial relationships, (4) labor organizations not now a part of the A. F. of L., (5) public relations, and (6) the post-war world.

Labor's War Effort

In his opening remarks, President Green placed particular emphasis on labor's production record and its sacrifices. He cited the War Production Board figures giving credit to organized labor for its remarkable accomplishments, but pointed out that such production has been achieved at the cost of more than 80,000 wage earners killed by accidents on the job since the attack on Pearl Harbor. Organized labor, in his opinion, must also be credited for the more than 2,000,000 members of unions now in the armed forces and for the outstanding record of war bonds purchased by the unions and their members.

The most stirring event of the convention occurred when President Green replied to the speech of Commander Atherton of the American Legion. That speaker had supported the pending Austin-Wadsworth labor draft bill and had referred to labor's strike record as being equally as treasonable as "for the man at the front to refuse to use his gun." In reply, President Green said in part:

> The American Federation of Labor did not hesitate or wait a moment. Immediately after receiving over the radio, through the press, and otherwise, information that the Japanese had treacherously attacked America at Pearl Harbor we stepped out and acted at once. * * * We pledged to the President of the United States a no-strike policy for the duration of this cruel war. That was made voluntarily, and you must understand the real value of the use of the strike weapon in order to understand the pledge that American labor made to the Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States. * * * It is the weapon it uses in defense of its interest, and when it agreed to place that behind the door and

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Labor Information Service, by Boris Stern and Eleanor Finger.

leave it there until the war was over it honestly pledged istelf to support the Government to the bitter end.

* * * What has been the record? The President of the United States, who keeps the record and studies it carefully day by day and month by month, has spoken to us in a convincing and eloquent way and said, "Men, you have kept that pledge 99.9 percent in the United States of America." * * * I maintain that it is an amazing record made good in an imperfect world.

* * * We do not denounce industry as a whole because some steel corporation in America supplied our Government during this emergency with defective armor plate. Nor do we denounce industry as a whole because some wire corporation supplied the Government with inferior wire. Nor do we denounce industry as a whole because some greedy employers of labor have sought to make profits that are unreasonable out of this war emergency. * * *

The American Federation of Labor has never officially ordered or approved a strike of 1, 5, or 10 men, or 100 men since the dastardly attack was made upon us at Pearl Harbor. We have kept the faith and we are keeping the faith. We are producing the planes, the guns, the tanks, the ships, the war material so necessary in order that our brave men on the battlefields of Africa, in the southern Pacific, in Italy, and wherever the war is being fought, may be adequately supplied.

The response of the delegates was a resolution submitted from the floor of the convention and adopted unanimously, recommending a wide distribution of President Green's speech, both in a specially published pamplet and through full-page advertisements in the leading city newspapers throughout the Nation.

Government War Agencies

The executive council of the American Federation of Labor reported a general advancement during the year in the administration of war production, and increasing acceptance of the principle of labor cooperation through representatives of its own choosing.

* * * In the War Labor Board labor representatives are an integral part of the Board. In the Office of Price Administration our labor representatives are able to make proposals and express dissent and seem to be gaining influence as the agency is now seeking more labor representatives at the local level; in the War Manpower Commission there is labor representation at every level, but the War Manpower Administrator has not definitely accepted the national management-labor committee as a policy committee, or made effective regulations that regional and area management-labor committees must be consulted in advance of initiating projects. In the War Production Board the Federation is represented on the management-labor council at the top level and at last has a representative at the top administrative level, Joseph Keenan, Vice-Chairman in charge of the Office of Labor Production. As labor representation is provided in the industry divisions, we shall be able to contribute in proportion.

However, the report of the executive council and that of the resolutions committee protested that many of the restrictions imposed by various war agencies upon the legitimate functions and rights of trade-unions were unnecessary. The War Manpower Commission was singled out as one agency not yet fully recognizing and accepting labor's cooperation as essential in the solving of the Nation's manpower problems. In this connection, the resolutions committee recommended that the A. F. of L. "urge the maintenance of voluntary, decentralized administrative machinery and that study be given to improving this kind of machinery rather than to the development of compulsory methods or a National Service Act."

The National War Labor Board, it was charged by both the resolutions committee and Secretary-Treasurer George Meany (member of the Board), has been gradually transformed from an agency created by voluntary agreement between labor and management to settle labor disputes into an agency for "freezing wage rates." Among the prac-

tices of the War Labor Board deemed detrimental to labor, the following were particularly stressed:

1. The use of wage brackets as a method to solve wage inequities effectively eliminates the possibility of wage increases to A. F. of L. members.
2. The minimum rate of the brackets is in most instances a nonunion rate, and this prevents the rates of newly organized employees from rising above the nonunion rates, thus seriously hampering organization.
3. In numerous instances the Board's definition of job classifications has threatened to destroy working conditions which the American Federation of Labor has fought for many years to attain.
4. The Board's authority is being increasingly subjected to pressure from other Government agencies such as the Office of Price Administration, and the Economic Stabilization and War Mobilization Directors.

The resolutions committee therefore recommended and the convention resolved that President Roosevelt should be asked "To initiate action which would restore the National War Labor Board to its former position; return to the Board its power to adjudicate finally all labor disputes by democratic processes; and remove from its back the ever-increasing load of superagencies."

"One-man rule" by the Economic Stabilization Director was protested in a speech by George M. Harrison, president of the Brotherhood of Railway and Steamship Clerks, who traced the history of the existing railway labor dispute and the impasse resulting from Economic Stabilization Director Vinson's refusal to allow the full increase of 8 cents an hour granted to nonoperating railroad workers by a special Presidential commission.

A resolution on the War Production Board criticized the Board's failure to create a supreme board of strategy and to concentrate the letting of all Government procurement contracts in a single agency responsible for meeting all production and manpower needs. The resolution further urged that the principle of labor-management cooperation be given an opportunity in local production plants to demonstrate its value in production as well as in the related field of manpower.

In a resolution submitted by the metal trades department of the Federation and also in the report of the resolutions committee, the National Labor Relations Board was strongly denounced for its alleged "extreme bias" against the A. F. of L. The Kaiser shipbuilding controversy was especially cited. The executive council was instructed to make further study and prepare recommendations to "prevent the Board from perverting the Wagner Act into a charter for organizing rival unions by means of unlawful raids."

In connection with the work of the Office of Price Administration, the convention adopted two resolutions, one on price control and rationing and the other on rent control. Among the measures recommended were (1) more extensive cooperation with labor representatives on national and local levels to prevent further increases in the cost of living, and (2) a study of income expenditures by wage earners, including the increasing proportion of wages going into taxes and war bonds, to make sure that war sacrifices do not endanger the lives and health of the Nation's wage earners.

Department of Labor

The convention adopted unanimously two resolutions submitted by the Federation's metal trades and building construction departments, relating to the U. S. Department of Labor. In one of these the Federation strongly recommended to the President of the United States that action be taken to centralize within the Labor Department responsibility for the making of Government policy dealing with labor, and that studies be made immediately to determine which governmental activities should in the interest of the welfare of labor be transferred to that Department. The other resolution recommended to the Secretary of Labor and to the Congress that steps be taken to secure adequate funds to enlarge the Department's facilities for improving working conditions.

Relations to Other Labor Organizations

Machinists' union.—The International Association of Machinists was unanimously readmitted into the Federation. The motion for reinstatement was made by M. A. Hutcheson, first vice president of the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners, the organization whose long-standing jurisdictional dispute with the machinists' union was largely responsible for the withdrawal of that union from the federation in May 1943.

United Mine Workers.—The question of readmitting the United Mine Workers proved to be somewhat more complicated. On the one hand, the Progressive Miners of America, an affiliate of the American Federation of Labor, now in possession of the charter and the jurisdictional rights formerly held by the United Mine Workers, refused to withdraw its objection to the readmission of the United Mine Workers. There was also considerable objection to admitting the United Mine Workers Union because of the fact that the jurisdiction of its District 50 overlapped that of a number of international and national unions now affiliated with the A. F. of L. The resolutions committee therefore recommended that the executive council be authorized to continue negotiations with the United Mine Workers and to obtain within 30 days following the adjournment of the convention a statement of the complaints from the various unions whose jurisdiction would be affected by the readmission of the mine workers. The committee also recommended that the executive council be given "full and complete authority vested in the convention itself, to determine and dispose of whatever issues may have failed of adjustment within a reasonable time" and to take such action as may be necessary to bring about an early reaffiliation of the United Mine Workers with the Federation. The ensuing discussion involved not only the readmission of the mine workers but also the question whether the executive council should be given entire authority in the matter. An amendment calling for determination by either a regular or a special meeting of the Federation was defeated by an overwhelming vote and the recommendation of the resolutions committee was adopted.

Congress of Industrial Organizations.—The discussion on the reinstatement of the mine workers provided a framework within which the general subject of labor unity was discussed. At the time of the debate on this question, and again in his acceptance speech as newly elected president of the A. F. of L., Mr. Green spoke at length on the

Federation's willingness to welcome back the unions who had left the "house of labor," provided they returned with no additions or complications. In line with the recommendation of the resolutions committee, the delegates resolved to continue negotiations with the Congress of Industrial Organizations through the American Federation of Labor unity committee.

International labor cooperation.—The convention also approved the executive council's program of cooperation with Latin American unions and with the British Trades Union Congress. It again went on record against direct participation in an Anglo-American-Soviet labor committee. The executive council and the convention drew a distinction between giving unlimited support to Russia as a military ally and actively cooperating with the Soviet labor unions which the A. F. of L. considered Government-dominated and therefore not free in the sense that the American and British unions are free to deal with management and with the government.

Racial Discrimination

The problem of Negro workers came before the delegates in the form of a report by the committee on resolutions approving the report of the executive council on the President's Committee on Fair Employment Practices and in several resolutions submitted to the convention largely by the sleeping-car porters, an international union of colored workers affiliated with the A. F. of L. The resolutions committee urged that "We extend our efforts to get complete acceptance by all unions of the Federation's long-established policy of nondiscrimination in acceptance of workers into membership in our free trade unions."

The committee presented a substitute resolution, in lieu of those submitted to the convention, which outlined briefly the historic struggle of the American Federation of Labor and its progress in eliminating prejudices against minority groups. It called attention to the more than half a million dues-paying colored members now within the ranks of the American Federation of Labor unions, and recommended "intelligent, systematic, educational efforts to speed the day when there will no longer exist in the industrial field any prejudices or handicaps because of racial origin or color." It also stated that—

> National origin, race, or color must in no manner or form restrict any American from a free opportunity to prepare himself to become a skilled mechanic, a craftsman, and take his place as such in any employment requiring the skill which he has acquired. The doors of our trade-union movement must be open. This country must not maintain an industrial standard which discriminates against a wage earner because of his color.

None of the delegates spoke against the specific recommendation of the resolutions committee. The principal discussion, which lasted several hours, dealt chiefly with the constitutional provisions and procedures of those among American Federation of Labor affiliates and some unaffiliated unions that either directly bar Negro membership or organize them into separate colored auxiliary locals, without rights comparable to those enjoyed by the regular locals.

Public Relations

The need to combat the flood of antilabor publicity circulated through the radio and the press and the recent trend toward Federal and State antilabor legislation were stressed in a number of speeches. Resolutions were submitted to the convention by several national and international unions and by State and city federations of labor. An analysis of State and national antilabor legislation—evidence of the success of this hostile propaganda—was presented to the convention in the executive council's report, later supplemented by the report of the resolutions committee and a speech by Judge Padway, chief counsel of the Federation. The convention went on record for an effective educational and public relations program to halt the present antilabor trend, on both national and State levels. Two additional resolutions favored the creation of a labor press for men in the armed forces and urged the coordination of publicity activities of the national and international unions through the Federation.

Labor in the Post-War Period

President Green, in his opening speech, stressed the importance of giving immediate attention to the formulation of a post-war labor program. In the course of the convention, both Secretary of Labor Perkins and Arthur Altmeyer, Chairman of the Social Security Board, suggested specific means for improving existing social-security legislation and more adequate coverage for the post-war emergency. This was in line with the executive council report on the A. F. of L.-sponsored Wagner-Murray-Dingell social security bill, which declared: "The American Federation of Labor continued to make action on social security its first preparation for post-war change."

Resolutions regarding the training, rehabilitation, and the protection of seniority rights of disabled and returned soldiers were adopted, as was also a resolution advocating the formation of a civilian committee composed of labor, agriculture, and industry representatives to handle cancelation of war contracts. Other resolutions called for the immediate establishment of an interdepartmental government council to correlate all post-war planning, and urged an increase in the appropriation for the Post-War Division in the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.

On the international front, the convention approved active participation by the United States with other nations in securing a lasting peace. Labor, it was urged, must have a voice at the peace table. The International Labor Office was therefore requested to call a labor conference for the purpose of preparing an international labor program, in which the restoration of democratic trade-unions throughout the world would be included as its main objective. As a practical step in that direction, Vice President Matthew Woll presented a check for $100,000 from the New York labor war chest to the Italian-American Labor Council, to be used in the reconstruction of free trade-unions in Italy.

Membership Statistics

With the readmission of the machinists' union, the official paid-up membership of the American Federation of Labor as of August 31,

1943, was reported as 6,564,141. This all-time peak represents an increase of more than 1,081,000 over the record for 1942.

A substantial number of the 89 affiliated national and international unions reported little or no increase in membership. Some unions actually paid to the American Federation of Labor for fewer members in 1943 than in 1942. The four largest unions of the Federation accounted for almost 80 percent of the total increase in the paid-up membership.

	Average paid-up membership, 1943[1]	*1942–1943 increase*
Carpenters and joiners	600, 000	233, 300
Machinists	458, 400	129, 900
Hodcarriers and common laborers	420, 200	136, 500
Boilermakers	286, 700	196, 400

[1] These figures are based on the average per capita tax payments to the A. F. of L. The average is obtained by adding the month-by-month per capita payments during the 12-month fiscal year of the Federation (September 1 through August 31) and dividing the sum by 12. The resulting figure is therefore different from the membership of the unions reported for the last month of the fiscal year. For instance, the average 1943 membership of the machinists' union as reported by the Federation was 458,400, as against a membership of over 625,000 as of August 31, 1943.

The largest union of the Federation, the International Brotherhood of Teamsters, Chauffeurs, Warehousemen and Helpers of America, reported an increase of 97,300, to a total average membership for the year of 602,900.

In connection with the per capita payments of the international unions to the A. F. of L., a resolution submitted by the teamsters' union recommended that the executive council be given the power to examine the books of the national and international unions for the purpose of determining "whether or not they are complying with the constitution relative to their per capita tax and the number of members in good standing within each respective organization." The resolution was referred to the executive council for study and a recommendation to be submitted to the next convention.

Officers and Convention City

President Green, Secretary-Treasurer Meany, and all the 13 vice presidents, including Harvey Brown, president of the machinists' union, were unanimously reelected to their respective offices.

New Orleans was selected as the A. F. of L. convention city for 1944. The meeting will convene on the third Monday in November.

Session of Canadian Trades and Labor Congress, 1943[1]

AT THE August–September 1943 session of the Canadian Trades and Labor Congress, an affiliate of the American Federation of Labor, the 519 representatives included 2 fraternal delegates, 46 national and international representatives, 6 delegates of federations of labor, 40 representatives of trades and labor councils, and 425 delegates of labor organizations.

In the discussion of the wartime position of labor, cost of living and wages were stressed. The views of the Canadian Government on

[1] Data are from Canadian Congress Journal (The Trades and Labor Congress of Canada), September 1943, and report (No. 102) by Lewis Clark, of the United States Legation at Ottawa.

these related subjects were presented in an address made to the convention by the Canadian Finance Minister. The Minister stated that one of the great upward pressures threatening the Canadian price ceiling is the pressure of rising wage rates; another is rising prices of farm products. The Minister said that "if labor costs go up substantially and widely, we cannot hope to hold the price ceiling." He added that failure to hold the price ceiling would involve Canada in an inflationary rise that would benefit only "the experts in the art of profiteering," and would be harmful to workers, farmers, and the majority of the population.

The Minister of Finance also told the delegates that a change in the method of deducting income tax on overtime pay was under consideration, as a means of removing the misconception by workers that overtime work was not worth while because the Treasury takes such a large share of the extra earnings in income tax. Under the new deduction method, the tax on overtime pay would be spread over the entire year instead of being concentrated in the particular period when the overtime pay is earned. The change in method is to be tried in the coal mines first, and will be extended to workers in other pursuits if it proves satisfactory.

Resolutions Adopted at Convention

Resolutions adopted by the delegates called for minimum wages of at least 50 cents an hour, or $25 a week, for every worker in Canadian industry, and for removal of regional wage differentials. In addition, endorsement was given to vacations with pay. Equal pay for equal work, whether done by male or female labor in industry, was approved again.

Revision of the existing official cost-of-living index was called for "to make it a more truthful expression of expenditures and costs to the average workers." The convention went on record as favoring computation of regional cost-of-living bonuses to allow for variations in living costs in different localities; every worker should receive the full cost-of-living bonus, free of taxation.

Lack of labor representation on Government boards and commissions has given rise to dissatisfaction on the part of organized labor. Several resolutions dealing with the matter were discussed; the resolution finally adopted noted that many boards had been organized to handle the work of the country and endorsed them as necessary and desirable, provided they are representative of the citizens. The resolution urged the Prime Minister to give labor suitable representation on such boards.

A no-strike policy was given unanimous endorsement. The same resolution urged that, in the best interests of the war effort, the Government should make the same policy (i. e. no lockouts) mandatory upon employers.

The Dominion Government was also called upon to outlaw all forms of company unionism; to require collective bargaining between employers and trade-unions representing a majority of the workers; and, in awarding public contracts, to give preference to firms having collective agreements with organized labor.

The Congress approved unanimously a resolution "calling upon the Trades and Labor Congress of Canada to go on record favoring affiliation as a member body of the Anglo-Russian Trade Union Com-

mittee." Another resolution supported a measure of cooperation with the Canadian Congress of Labor and unions affiliated with the C. I. O. as a means of presenting a united front for improving labor's position.

Canadian Congress of Labor Convention, 1943[1]

WHEN the Canadian Congress of Labor held its fourth annual convention, in September 1943, the 545 delegates in attendance represented a membership of 200,000 persons. Over 100 new unions had obtained charters in the organization during the preceding year.

In the course of the meeting, the relations of the organization with the Congress of Industrial Organizations and with the Canadian Cooperative Commonwealth Federation were clarified. The Congress of Labor, itself, is neither affiliated with nor chartered by the C. I. O. It is a Canadian labor organization created by Canadians. Some of its member unions, however, are also affiliated with the C. I. O. in the United States. In this connection the Congress passed a resolution stating that it is becoming increasingly apparent that organized labor must take political as well as economic action if it is to play its part in improving the status of the working people and that, in the opinion of the Congress, the C. C. F. expresses the views of organized labor more adequately than any other party; the Congress therefore endorsed the C. C. F. and recommended affiliation with the party by its member organizations.

Another resolution recommended a minimum wage of 50 cents an hour; computation of the cost-of-living index in such a way as to reflect the actual change in living costs; and payment of a full cost-of-living bonus to all workers in industry, on a uniform basis. Vacations with pay were endorsed for all Canadian workers and mandatory legislation for this purpose was requested.

The Congress went on record as favoring cooperation and unity of action between organized workers of the United Nations. Affiliation with the Anglo-Soviet Trade Union Committee was asked for as a first step in pursuance of the policy.

Legal Status for Trade-Union Federations in Cuba[2]

FULL juridical personality was granted to trade-union federations and confederations in Cuba by decree No. 1123 of April 9, 1943. This decree regulates certain provisions of the 1933 law on labor organizations, which recognized the right of unions of employers and workers to form federations and confederations.[3]

The right to form municipal, Provincial or national federations is granted to unions of workers of the same trades, occupations, or specialties, and also to unions of employers of the same industrial, commercial, or agricultural branch. The federations are to register with the Ministry of Labor. To establish a confederation of either

[1] Data are from the Canadian Unionist (Canadian Congress of Labor), September 1943, and reports from United States Legation, Ottawa.

[2] Data are from Trabajo (Ministerio del Trabajo, Havana), April 1943.

[3] Decree No. 2605 of November 7, 1933. (Translated in International Labor Office Legislative Series 933, Cuba 2, A.)

workers' or employers' federations it is necessary that the majority of the active federations be legally recognized by the Ministry of Labor. The Ministry of Labor will have supervision of the federations and confederations and will name representatives to supervise their functioning and watch over the receipt and use of the social funds. Conditions are set forth for the dissolution of a federation.

The confederations or central federations shall have as their principal objectives the holding of national or international congresses, the passing upon matters in their special field, representation of the interests of their affiliates before national and legislative authorities, and maintenance of relations with other national and international organizations.

Although the decree does not mention by name the Confederation of Cuban Workers (*Confederacion de Trabajadores de Cuba*), that organization obtained full legal status with the signing of this decree.

Meeting of British Trades Union Congress, 1943[1]

THE fifth wartime congress of the British Trades Union Congress, the seventy-fifth annual meeting of the organization, opened September 6, 1943, under the presidency of Dame Anne Loughlin, the first woman to hold the office. The 753 delegates present represented 75 percent of all the trade-unionists in Great Britain and represented 230 unions in which membership in 1942 was 6,024,411 (1,203,543 women). This T. U. C. membership was the highest since 1920.

Post-War Problems and Policies

Reconstruction occupied an important place on the agenda. According to the general secretary, Sir Walter Citrine, labor does not expect to return to its prewar position; its object is to secure a compelling voice in economic affairs so that future opportunities and rewards shall be fairly distributed.

The general council report on post-war reconstruction adopted by the congress stated that transitional post-war policy must insure a speedy change-over from war to peace production; that control of prices, production, distribution, and consumption should continue as long as circumstances require; and that the continuance of labor controls may be necessary, and unions must be prepared to accept these controls.

By resolution the Government was urged to clarify its post-war policy on social and economic affairs. The T. U. C. was requested to authorize a plan for reconstruction to maintain full employment and to decide the degree of national ownership of industry. Land, coal mining, banking, and transport were named as primary industries which must be reconstructed.

The general council was requested to explore the possibilities of calling a world conference of organized labor as soon as war conditions permit. The object of such a meeting would be to consider the most pressing problems of policy and organization affecting the interests of

[1] Data are from British Information Services, Press release No. L-110; Labor (Trades Union Congress), September 1943; and Economist (London), September 11, 1943.

working people, thereby promoting the widest possible unity of aim and action in the international trade-union movement.

Attitude toward Germany.—A resolution dealing with the attitude of the T. U. C. toward the enemy pledges continuance of the war until both Germany and Japan surrender unconditionally. Punishment was demanded for all those responsible for war atrocities. A pledge was made to restore trade-unions in occupied and enemy countries, giving them their full freedom and independence. Restoration in enemy countries would follow the complete overthrow of totalitarian government and the establishment of genuinely democratic regimes.

Passage of the resolution marks a reversal of policy endorsed in June 1943, when the Labor Party Conference declared that the vast majority of the German people as well as the German Government shared responsibility for the war. At that time the conviction was expressed that Germany would have to be occupied for a long time to educate the people for life under a system of democratic government, and to cooperate with free nations.

Trade-Union Structure and Affiliations

A provision of the Trade Disputes and Trade-Unions Act of 1927 prohibits civil servants from belonging to labor organizations other than those whose membership is confined to persons employed by or under the Crown. After unsuccessful attempts to have the law amended, the Union of Post Office Workers recently sought to affiliate with the T. U. C. The Government, however, warned the members that if affiliation took place, the position of the postal workers would be jeopardized, under the terms of the 1927 law.

The postal workers' application was therefore withdrawn on August 22, in the interest of national unity, and instead a joint committee of the T. U. C. general council, the Labor Party Executive, and the Parliamentary Labor Party Administrative Committee was established to attempt to work out a satisfactory arrangement.

The T. U. C. has been desirous of having the above restrictive provision of the Trade Disputes Act as well as others rescinded and, in fact, has sought for many years to have the law repealed. At the congress in September 1943, the legislation was discussed in secret session first and later in a public session. A resolution was unanimously adopted "complimenting the T. U. C. general council on its general policy of strong opposition to the Government for failing to amend sections 5 and 6 of the Trade Disputes Act, and urging the T. U. C. to press for repeal of the whole act."

Another resolution requesting the general council "to examine trade-union structure, with a view to avoiding overlapping and competition" between unions was adopted unanimously. A similar resolution at the 1942 session was rejected.

Industrial Disputes

Activities of the United States Conciliation Service, October 1943

THE U. S. Conciliation Service, during October, disposed of 1,871 situations involving 1,127,857 workers (table 1). The services of this agency were requested by the employers, employees, and other interested parties. Of these situations, 165 were strikes and lockouts involving 72,733 workers; 1,078 were threatened strikes and controversies involving 323,786 workers. During the month 318 disputes were certified to the National War Labor Board, and in 61 cases other agencies assumed jurisdiction. The remaining 249 situations included investigations, arbitrations, consultations, etc.

TABLE 1.—*Situations Disposed of by the United States Conciliation Service, October 1943, by Type of Situation*

Type of situation	Number	Workers involved
All situations	[1] 1,871	1,127,857
Disputes	1,243	396,519
Strikes	163	72,648
Threatened strikes	148	33,859
Lockouts	2	85
Controversies	930	289,927
Other situations	249	48,178
Arbitrations	105	37,437
Technical services	5	4,340
Investigations	55	3,713
Requests to conduct consent elections	2	24
Requests for verification of union membership	1	26
Requests for information	12	23
Consultations	34	103
Special services of Commissioners	22	2,497
Complaints	13	15
Disputes referred to other agencies during negotiations	379	683,160
To National War Labor Board	318	648,169
To National Labor Relations Board	37	18,517
To other Federal agencies	9	8,294
To Wage Adjustment Board	2	832
To nongovernmental agencies	10	7,246
To State agencies	3	102

[1] During the month 185 cases involving 74,979 workers were adjusted subject to hearings-officer or arbitration procedure with the hearings officer or arbiter to be selected by the National War Labor Board.

The facilities of the Service were used in 27 major industrial fields, such as building trades and transportation, and the manufacture of iron and steel, transportation equipment, textiles, food, etc. (table 2), and were utilized by employees and employers in 48 States, the District of Columbia, Alaska, Hawaii, and Cuba (table 3).

TABLE 2.—*Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, October 1943, by Industries*

Industry	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All industries	1,622	1,079,679	249	48,178	1,871	1,127,857
Building trades	59	22,786	8	209	67	22,995
Chemicals	49	19,186	7	179	56	19,365
Communications	11	10,076	1	49	12	10,125
Electrical equipment	39	27,709	6	1,462	45	29,171
Food	152	21,978	24	5,741	176	27,719
Furniture and finished lumber	38	4,779	6	315	44	5,094
Iron and steel	244	106,742	42	2,085	286	108,827
Leather	27	5,932	13	1,935	40	7,867
Lumber	59	9,685	5	71	64	9,756
Machinery	83	78,929	6	1,326	89	80,255
Maritime	10	18,344			10	18,344
Mining	23	8,984	1	8	24	8,992
Motion pictures	1	100			1	100
Nonferrous metals	43	24,211	10	1,344	53	25,555
Paper	24	8,379	8	414	32	8,793
Personal service	71	7,464	7	531	78	7,995
Petroleum	21	2,692	12	942	33	3,634
Printing	34	1,123	1	18	35	1,141
Professional	9	1,752	3	160	12	1,912
Rubber	21	12,021	4	3,825	25	15,846
Stone, clay and glass	54	17,621	6	588	60	18,209
Textile	85	33,250	18	3,696	103	36,946
Tobacco	7	6,493			7	6,493
Trade	136	15,226	8	309	144	15,535
Transportation	103	93,580	12	968	115	94,548
Transportation equipment	128	501,053	23	19,706	151	520,759
Utilities	20	4,895			20	4,895
Miscellaneous	71	14,689	18	2,297	89	16,986

TABLE 3.—*Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, October 1943, by States*

State	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All States	1,622	1,079,679	249	48,178	1,871	1,127,857
Alabama	21	5,308	4	64	25	5,372
Alaska	1	16			1	16
Arizona	8	242	2	35	10	277
Arkansas	6	2,145			6	2,145
California	107	46,534	13	4,695	120	51,229
Colorado	14	1,203	1	1	15	1,204
Connecticut	15	28,982	2	98	17	29,080
Cuba	1	390			1	390
Delaware	7	3,945			7	3,945
District of Columbia	8	1,072	5	519	13	1,591
Florida	10	9,626			10	9,626
Georgia	10	6,493	3	569	13	7,062
Hawaii	2	284			2	284
Idaho	5	658	1	1	6	659
Illinois	178	124,851	23	1,262	201	126,113
Indiana	82	32,635	14	2,572	96	35,207
Iowa	40	12,596	3	1,018	43	13,614
Kansas	5	694	5	83	10	777
Kentucky	25	4,059	2	302	27	4,361
Louisiana	12	7,384	2	247	14	7,631
Maine	10	4,189	3	7	13	4,196
Maryland	12	2,054	1	3	13	2,057
Massachusetts	68	60,292	5	387	73	60,679
Michigan	91	284,280	30	1,569	121	285,849
Minnesota	44	5,421	2	37	46	5,458
Mississippi	5	2,490			5	2,490

TABLE 3.—*Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, October 1943, by States*—Continued

State	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
Missouri	36	4,410	12	1,780	48	6,190
Montana	5	1,454			5	1,454
Nebraska	16	164	3	128	19	292
Nevada	1	200			1	200
New Hampshire	8	2,987	3	119	11	3,106
New Jersey	53	32,987	7	1,561	60	34,548
New Mexico	3	2,997	1	1	4	2,998
New York	106	84,163	16	5,098	122	89,261
North Carolina	21	8,385	2	133	23	8,518
North Dakota	5	29			5	29
Ohio	156	92,219	28	1,745	184	93,964
Oklahoma	16	1,429	9	579	25	2,008
Oregon	49	4,921	3	41	52	4,962
Pennsylvania	139	109,992	20	21,702	159	131,694
Rhode Island	6	2,160	1	2	7	2,162
South Carolina	11	4,853			11	4,853
South Dakota	1	32			1	32
Tennessee	26	24,250	2	108	28	24,358
Texas	21	2,848	2	17	23	2,865
Utah	14	7,928	1	475	15	8,403
Vermont	4	980			4	980
Virginia	19	5,143	2	2	21	5,145
Washington	35	10,092	4	68	39	10,160
West Virginia	25	8,268	5	331	30	8,599
Wisconsin	57	18,770	7	819	64	19,589
Wyoming	2	175			2	175

Labor Laws and Decisions

Recent Decisions of Interest to Labor[1]

Child Labor

TELEGRAPH company subject to child-labor provisions of law.—In the first important decision interpreting the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act, the United States District Court for the Southern District of New York enjoined the Western Union Co. from violating those provisions. (*Lenroot* v. *Western Union Telegraph Co.*)[2]

Section 12 (a) of the act forbids shipment or delivery for shipment in interstate commerce of any goods produced in an establishment in or about which, within 30 days prior to the removal of such goods therefrom, any "oppressive" child labor has been employed. "Oppressive" child labor means the employment of minors under 16 years of age in any occupation[3] and the employment of minors between 16 and 18 years of age in occupations found by the Chief of the Children's Bureau to be particularly hazardous.

The telegraph company was charged with shipping telegraph messages in interstate commerce, such messages having been produced in its public offices in which minors under 16 years of age were employed as messengers. The complaint also alleged that minors between the ages of 16 and 18 years of age were employed as drivers of motor vehicles, an occupation which had been declared hazardous by the Chief of the Children's Bureau. The company admitted the employment of oppressive child labor but denied that it was subject to the child-labor provisions of the act.

The company made two principal contentions in support of its position that it was not subject to the act: (1) that the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act were limited to companies producing goods of a tangible character and did not include the "production" of intangible matter such as telegraph messages; and (2) that, in any event, the company does not produce the messages which it transmits but merely conveys the ideas of its customers.

In rejecting the company's contention that the Federal child-labor law is limited to establishments producing items of a tangible character, the court pointed to the fact that Congress had granted a specific exemption from the law for the employment of minors in

[1] Prepared in the Office of the Solicitor, Department of Labor. The cases covered in this article represent a selection of significant decisions believed to be of special interest. No attempt has been made to reflect all recent judicial and administrative developments in the field of labor law nor to indicate the effect of particular decisions in jurisdictions in which contrary results may be reached based upon local statutory provisions, the existence of local precedents, or a different approach by the courts to the issue presented.

[2] —— Fed. Supp. —— (Oct. 7, 1943).

[3] The statute grants the Chief of the Children's Bureau the right to permit the employment of minors between the ages of 14 and 16 years of age in occupations other than manufacturing and mining under certain specified conditions. The employment of minors as telegraph messengers had not been exempted from the 16-year minimum-age requirement.

theatrical productions. Since a similar exemption was not granted to telegraph messengers, the court concluded that it was the intention of Congress to prohibit the employment of under-age minors as telegraph messengers. Further, the court noted that section 3 (i) of the act defines "goods" as "wares, products, commodities, merchandise, or articles or subjects of commerce of any character, * * *." In the opinion of the court, the specific wording of this final clause clearly includes intangibles.

In addition, the court found that the statutory definition of "produced" in section 3 (j), which includes "handling, * * *, or in any other manner working on such goods * * *" was met, since the telegraph messages are handled and worked on in the company's public offices, and because the company converts the ideas of its customers into the telegraph messages that are transmitted in commerce.

Referring to the fact that the word "ship" rather than the word "transmit" is used in the child-labor provisions of the act, the court determined that, for the purposes of the statute, the words were synonymous. In upholding the applicability of the law to the Western Union Co., the judge pointed to the century-old struggle in this country to achieve Federal control over the employment of child labor and referred to the previous attempts of Congress to abolish oppressive child labor through the first and second Federal child-labor laws and through the proposed child-labor amendment to the Constitution. He declared:

> The history of the statute is consistent only with the conclusion that Congress intended to keep the arteries of commerce free from pollution by the sweat of child labor. To accomplish this result with the least difficulty, the law prohibited the introduction into the streams of commerce not only of the products of child labor *but of all the products of an establishment where any child labor has been employed within 30 days.*

Wage and Hour Decisions

Status of maintenance employees in office buildings.—The Fair Labor Standards Act is applicable to employees engaged in interstate commerce or in the production of goods for interstate commerce. Section 3 (j) of the act includes in the definition of production for commerce "any process or occupation necessary to" production.

The Supreme Court of the United States in *Kirschbaum* v. *Walling* (316 U. S. 517) held that employees performing maintenance services in buildings where the tenants are engaged in the production of goods for interstate commerce are engaged in activities "necessary to" the production of goods for interstate commerce, and are subject to the provisions of the Wage-Hour Law.

In the case of *Semeria v. Rosenberg* (137 Fed. (2d) 742), the Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals held that the wage-hour law is inapplicable to janitors employed by a local building and maintenance company to clean bank buildings, and the United States Supreme Court declined to review the decision of the circuit court.[4] Although the banks were engaged in interstate commerce, the appellate court held that the employees' activities were not so closely related to the movement

[4] Also *Semeria* v. *Lorenzetti; Semeria* v. *Hardy*, certiorari denied, Nos. 322-24——Sup. Ct.——(Oct 18. 1943).

of the commerce as to be a part of it.[5] Several other circuit courts have reached the same conclusion in similar circumstances.[6]

Scope of Wage and Hour Administrator's subpena powers.—The Supreme Court of the United States again refused to review a decision of a circuit court of appeals that the Administrator of the Fair Labor Standards Act is entitled to enforcement of his investigatory administrative subpena without a preliminary trial, on the merits of the issue of coverage (*Mississippi Road Supply Co.* v. *Walling*, 136 Fed., (2d) 391).[7] The Supreme Court had previously denied review at the last session of Court, of a decision by the Second Circuit Court of Appeals in *Standard Dredging Corp.* v. *Walling* (63 Sup. Ct. 1318).[8]

The Fifth Circuit Court of Appeals, in the Mississippi Road Supply case, affirmed a district court order requiring compliance with the Administrator's subpena, over the protest of the company that its employees were not engaged in activities subject to the Fair Labor Standards Act, and, furthermore, that the company and employees were exempted under section 13 (a) (2) of the act. The court of appeals relied on the authority of *Endicott Johnson Co.* v. *Perkins* (317 U. S. 501), in which it was held that the courts should enforce the subpena of the Secretary of Labor issued in the course of administering the Public Contracts (Walsh-Healey) Act, and upon the presumption of the propriety and validity of the Administrator's action.

Labor Relations and Industrial Disputes

Employer's freedom of speech and the Wagner Act.—Section 8 (1) of the National Labor Relations Act (29 U. S. C., sec. 151 et seq.) declares that it shall be an unfair labor practice for an employer to "interfere with, restrain, or coerce" employees in the exercise of their rights of self-organization and collective bargaining. The question of whether anti-union speeches by company officials and an anti-union bulletin posted by the company interfered with, restrained, or coerced employees so as to constitute an unfair labor practice was before the United States Supreme Court in 1941 in *National Labor Relations Board* v. *Virginia Electric & Power Co.* (314 U. S. 469).

The Court held that the speeches and the bulletin were equivocal in meaning and not coercive, unless considered against a background of other anti-union activities of the company. Since the Court was unable to ascertain whether the Board had considered the speeches and the bulletin in such a light, the case was remanded to the circuit court of appeals with directions to remand it to the Board for a redetermination in accordance with the Supreme Court's opinion. The Court did not say that words alone could never be coercive but that the words involved, in this particular case, were not of such a character.

The Circuit Court of Appeals for the Second Circuit, in upholding the right of an employer to advise his employees, by speaking or writing, how to vote in a National Labor Relations Board election,

[5] See *McLeod* v. *Threlkeld*, 63 Sup. Ct. 1248. Discussed in Monthly Labor Review, July 1943 (pp. 126, 127).

[6] *Johnson* v. *Dallas Downtown Development Co.*, 132 Fed. (2d) 287, certiorari denied, 63 Sup. Ct. 994 (April 19, 1943); *Tate* v. *Empire Building Corp.*, 135 Fed. (2d) 743, certiorari denied, No. 297, 64 Sup. Ct. 71 (Oct. 11, 1943); *Stoike* v. *First National Bank of New York*, 290 N. Y. 195, 48 N. E. (2d) 482, certiorari denied, No. 170, 64 Sup. Ct. 50 (Oct. 11, 1943); *Lofther* v. *First National Bank of Chicago*, —— Fed. (2d) —— (Oct. 26, 1943).

[7] No. 206, certiorari denied, 64 Sup. Ct. 57 (Oct. 11, 1943). The Supreme Court also denied certiorari in *Benson et al.* v. *Walling*, 137 Fed. (2d) 501; —— Sup. Ct. —— (Nov. 22, 1943).

[8] Petition for rehearing denied, 64 Sup. Ct. 29 (Oct. 11, 1943). Discussed in Monthly Labor Review, July 1943 (pp. 125, 126).

relied on the Supreme Court's decision in the Virginia Electric Railway case. (*National Labor Relations Board* v. *American Tube Bending Co.*, 134 Fed. (2d) 993.) A significant point made by the court was that, although the company's preferences were clear, there was no intimation of reprisal against those who might vote otherwise. Since it found no other anti-union activity on the part of the company, the court reversed the Board's order. The Supreme Court of the United States refused to review the decision of the circuit court.[9]

On the same day the Supreme Court refused to review two similar cases in which circuit courts had upheld the Board's decisions that anti-union notices and letters constituted an interference with employees' rights of self-organization. In *Jacksonville Paper Co.* v. *N. L. R. B.*,[10] the Third Circuit Court of Appeals stated that an employer has the right to express his hostility to a union, his opinions of union leaders, and to inquire if the union is "washed up." However, these utterances, together with other anti-union conduct, such as the refusal to hire an employee permanently, because of his union membership, constituted an unfair labor practice. Coercion was also found in *Trojan Powder Co.* v. *N. L. R. B.*,[11] where the employer wrote a series of letters to employees containing threats of reprisals against unionism. The company had also procured from employees individual pledges "not [to] be a party to any labor disturbance of any sort, and * * * [to] do my best to influence my fellow employees against any such course."

Labor-management committee functions limited.—The National Labor Relations Board recently ruled that utilization of a labor-management committee as a means of settling employee grievances constitutes a violation of the National Labor Relations Act.

A committee in the plant had been initiated and financially assisted by the employer at the time an outside union began to organize employees. Meetings were held on company property and the members were paid for the time spent in attendance. The committee, which included two supervisory employees, settled employee grievances. The Board ordered the disestablishment of the committee as an employer-dominated "labor organization" within the meaning of section 2 (5) of the National Labor Relations Act (*In re J. W. Greer Co.*, 52 NLRB, No. 224).

Although the Board stated its approval generally of labor-management committees devoted to the purpose of increasing production, it strongly disapproved of such committees handling employee grievances. It pointed out that its intention was not to destroy bona fide labor-management committees, but that these committees should not be permitted to interfere with employee rights guaranteed by the Wagner Act. The Board relied on an official release of the War Production Board, the sponsoring agency of these committees, which declared that "labor-management committees are not meant 'to promote company unions' or 'to interfere with bargaining machinery where it exists or undertake the functions of such machinery.' "

Check-off of dues to rival of majority union.—A company had an agreement with a majority union in its plant for a check-off of union dues. It later granted a similar right to a rival union. Subsequently,

[9] No. 334, 64 Sup. Ct. 84 (Oct. 18, 1943).
[10] *Jacksonville Paper Co.* v. *National Labor Relations Board*, 137 Fed. (2d) 148, certiorari denied, No. 342, 64 Sup. Ct. 84 (Oct. 18, 1943).
[11] *Trojan Powder Co.* v. *National Labor Relations Board*, 135 Fed. (2d) 337, certiorari denied, No. 201, 64 Sup. Ct. 76 (Oct. 18, 1943).

the rival union was certified as the bargaining representative of the plant's employees, but the company continued its check-off for both unions. It also recognized each union for the purpose of handling grievances of its individual members. The case was presented to the Regional War Labor Board at Dallas, Tex., on a demand of the majority union that the employer cease deducting dues on behalf of the minority union and cease recognizing it as a medium through which employee grievances could be settled (*In re Hughes Tool Co.*, 11 War Lab. Rept. 477). The majority union contended that these two concessions constituted a violation of the National Labor Relations Act.

The regional board observed that although the National Labor Relations Board had often held it to be an unfair labor practice for employers to check off dues to company-dominated unions, the majority group had not brought a charge of company-domination of its rival. The Board held that the employer's practice was not in contravention of the National Labor Relations Act. It did, however, order the employer to cease recognition of the minority union as the grievance representative of its members.

Union-security provisions.—In an unusual case implementing a union-security clause, the Regional War Labor Board at San Francisco ordered a company to recommend to new employees that they join the union in the plant, to furnish them with a copy of the union contract, a company rule book, and a union membership-application card with an attached order authorizing dues deduction. (*In re Consolidated Aircraft Corporation* (11 War Labor Reports 641).)

The case arose in a dispute involving a small unit of a large aircraft-manufacturing company, which, in its operations, was described as an integrated part of several divisions and departments of the main plant. Notwithstanding the company's objection that it was being compelled to violate provisions of the National Labor Relations Act, the Board ordered that the union-security provisions mentioned above, which appear in the union contract relating to the large plant, should be incorporated in the contract relating to the small unit.

Unfair labor practices of employees.—A union appealed to the United States Supreme Court, in *Christoffel* v. *Wisconsin Employment Relations Board*,[12] from a ruling of the Wisconsin Supreme Court upholding a cease and desist order issued against it by the Wisconsin Employment Relations Board. The State Board had enjoined the union from "continuous solicitation of membership if objected to" and interference "in any other manner or in any other way." The order was based on a provision of the Wisconsin Employment Peace Act which declares it an unfair labor practice for an individual or group of employees to coerce or intimidate another individual employee in his right to refrain from joining or assisting any labor organization. The petition for review was based on the ground that the injunction restrained activities guaranteed to the union by the National Labor Relations Act. The Supreme Court of the United States refused to review the decision of the State court.[13]

Railway Labor Act

Court's right to review rulings of Railroad Adjustment Board.—The question of the authority of courts to review the merits of cases decided

[12] Decision of Wisconsin Supreme Court, 243 Wis. 332, 10 N. W. (2d) 197, discussed in Monthly Labor Review, September 1943 (pp. 556, 557).
[13] No. 353, —— Sup. Ct. —— (Oct. 25, 1943).

by the Railroad Adjustment Board was raised in the United States Circuit Court of Appeals for the Third Circuit in *Dahlberg* v. *The Pittsburgh-Lake Erie Railroad Co., et al.*; *Singer* v. *Same*.[14]

The National Railroad Adjustment Board was established under authority of the Railway Labor Act (45 U. S. C. sec. 151 *et seq.*). It consists of an equal number of representatives selected by carriers and labor organizations. Its jurisdiction extends to labor disputes arising between rail employees and carriers. Application was made to a Federal district court in each of the above-named cases to enforce the awards of the Board. The district court reversed the decisions of the Board and decided the cases in favor of the employer.

On appeal to the circuit court of appeals, the employees contended that the district court was without power to review the merits of the cases, inasmuch as section 3 (m) of the Railway Labor Act provides that the Board's award "shall be final and binding upon both parties to the dispute."

In affirming the judgment of the district court, the appellate court stated that were the courts denied review of the Board's rulings, there would be an unconstitutional delegation of power to a non-Governmental agency. It considered the Adjustment Board, the members of which are selected and paid by partisan groups, as a non-Governmental agency. It also stated that the purpose of the words "final and binding" was only to give the Board's awards greater effect than was allowed similar boards under the earlier Transportation Acts of 1920 and 1926, in which powers were only advisory.

Social Security Laws

Tax exemption for "charitable" institutions defined.—A mutual-benefit society operating a hospital brought an action to recover taxes paid under protest under the California Unemployment Insurance Act.[14a] (*La Société Française de Bienfaisance Mutuelle* v. *California Unemployment Comm.*, 56 A. C. A. 593, 133 Pac. (2d) 47.)

The California Unemployment Insurance Act requires contributions from employers and their employees, based upon wages paid for services in "employment." Section 7(g) of the statute excludes services performed in the employ of a corporation "operated exclusively for * * * charitable, * * * purposes * * * no part of the net earnings of which inures to the benefit of any private shareholder or individual."

The plaintiff's contention was that a nonprofit hospital rendering services to members and nonmembers is a charitable organization within the meaning of the California law. The District Court of Appeal (First District, Division 1) of California ruled that the exemption should be narrowly construed. One of the tests applied was that a shareholder shall not participate directly or indirectly in its net earnings. Although no profits or dividends were distributed by the association to its members, services and hospital facilities were rendered to "nonmembers" at rates higher than those charged to members. Since these outside payments inured to the benefit of members, the court held that the organization was not operated for

[14] —— Fed. (2d) —— (Sept. 30, 1943).
[14a] Calif. Stats. 1935, ch. 352, p. 1226; Gen. Laws 1937, p. 4121, Act No. 8780d.

"charitable" purposes exclusively. The United States Supreme Court refused to review the decision of the California court.[15]

Taxi-dancers' wages subject to social-security tax.—The United States Supreme Court refused to review the decision of the Circuit Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit in *Matcovich* v. *Anglim, as Collector, etc.* (134 Fed. (2d) 834)[16]—that a dance-hall proprietor is liable for Federal social-security taxes based on wages paid to "taxi-dancers" in his establishment. The appellate court's decision therefore remains in effect.

The owner claimed tax exemption on the ground that the dancers were not "employees" but "licensees" as designated in their contract. The appellate court, however, ignored the terminology of the contract, and found that the circumstances under which the services were performed warranted the conclusion that the relationship of employer and employee was present.[17]

Miscellaneous State Decisions

Employee status of drafted worker: Group insurance protection.—A mother, who sued to recover life-insurance benefits alleged to be due her under a group life-insurance policy by reason of her son's death, appealed to the Supreme Court of Michigan for a reversal of a directed jury verdict for the defendants. (*Murphy* v. *Chrysler Corporation and Aetna Life Insurance Co. of Hartford, Conn.*)[18]

The son had authorized deduction of premium payments from his wages for the insurance. The policy contained a provision for automatic termination on failure to pay the premium contribution or upon termination of employment. However, the certificate also provided that if any employee was temporarily laid off or granted leave of absence, the insurance was to continue until terminated by the employer.

Six days before the date upon which the employee had been ordered to report to his draft board for physical examination and induction, but before actual induction, he notified his foreman that he was going into the Army and thereupon ceased working. He returned to the plant 2 days before the date set for his induction in order to turn in his employee badge and receive his pay check. The paymaster deducted from the total check the insurance premiums due for the period ending the day that he had ceased work, canceled his policy on the company's records, and notified the insurance company of this cancelation. The day before the employee was scheduled to report to his draft board, he died.

His mother contended, on appeal, that her son's absence from work before induction did not terminate his status as an employee but, rather, that his absence for the purpose of being inducted into the armed services constituted a temporary lay-off within the meaning of the insurance policy and a leave of absence within the meaning of the Selective Service and Training Act (50 U. S. C. App., Sec. 308). That act provides that an employee inducted into the armed services, who receives an honorable discharge and makes due application therefor, upon his return, is entitled to be restored to his former job and

[15] No. 80, —— Sup. Ct. —— (Oct. 11, 1943).
[16] No. 148, 64 Sup. Ct. 46 (Oct. 11, 1943).
[17] Discussed in Monthly Labor Review, June 1943 (pp. 1129, 1130).
[18] —— N. W. (2d) —— (Oct. 11, 1943).

to participate in insurance benefits offered by his employer, according to the employer's practices relating to other employees on furlough or on leave of absence. It also provides that an employee so restored to his job shall be considered as having been on furlough or leave of absence during the period of his training and service.

The Supreme Court of Michigan found that the employee had "quit his employment" before induction, that his insurance was canceled on the same day, and that the benefits therefrom were likewise terminated by such action. It was held that the employer and the insurance company were not obliged to keep the policy in force in respect of an employee who could not have been restored to his job, because he had left his employment and died before he was to be inducted. The court was careful to observe that its decision should not be construed as affecting the rights of an employee who leaves his position, is inducted in the armed forces, satisfies the statutory requirements of restoration to his job, and is restored thereto.

Employment contract unenforceable.—An action for job reinstatement and damages was brought by a locomotive engineer, who alleged that he was wrongfully discharged under the terms of an employment contract. From a judgment of dismissal in an Arkansas circuit court he appealed to the supreme court of the State (*Petty* v. *Missouri & Arkansas Ry. Co.*, 78 Ark. L. Rept. 900, 167 S. W. (2d) 895).[19]

The employment contract of the plaintiff applied generally to "engineers, firemen, and hostlers." Among other things, it provided that such employees were not to be discharged without a hearing before company officers. The plaintiff showed that he was discharged without any hearing.

The court, relying upon the precedent of an earlier decision,[20] held that the contract was unenforceable, as it lacked "mutuality of obligation." It was observed that the employer had promised to retain the engineer as long as he performed his duties satisfactorily, but the employee had not promised to serve any specified time, and that a mutually binding undertaking by both parties was necessary if one party was to enforce the contract in respect of the continuance of the employment relation.[21]

The court implied that the plaintiff might have been successful had he pursued the procedure provided by the Railway Labor Act (45 U. S. C. A., No. 151 *et seq.*) and taken his grievance to the Railroad Adjustment Board. However, in the absence of plaintiff's reliance on a statutory remedy, the rules of contract law recognized in the State were applicable. A petition to review the State court's decision was denied by the United States Supreme Court.[22]

Union contract protects employee rights.—A labor union and company negotiated a contract providing that in the event of lay-off, seniority rights were to be protected. An employee who was a member of the contracting union brought an action to recover for breach of the contract, claiming that he was discharged in violation of his seniority rights. The employer's defense was that the contract existed only with the union and that an individual employee had no right judicially enforceable under the contract.

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[19] Feb. 1, 1943, rehearing denied, March 1, 1943.
[20] *St. Louis, I. M. & S. Ry. Co.* v. *Matthews*, 64 Ark. 398, 42 S. W. 908.
[21] Cf. decisions to the contrary in *McGlohn* v. *Gulf & S. I. R. R.*, 179 Miss. 396, 174 So. 250, and *Rentschler* v. *Missouri Pac. R. Co.*, 126 Neb. 493, 253 N. W. 694, 95 A. L. R. 1.
[22] No. 96, —— Sup. Ct. —— (October 11, 1943).

The New York City Court (Special Term, Part I) in *Rosen* v. *Seagram Distillers Corp.* (13 Lab. Rel. Rept. 225) rejected the employer's defense, and ruled that the contract was intended to benefit union members and conferred a right of action upon them, in the event of breach by the employer.

A similar defense was presented in *Helt* v. *Britton-Fenton Co.* (13 Lab. Rel. Rept. 225), where the New York Supreme Court (Special Term, Part I) had before it a union contract providing for overtime payment. The overtime provision in the employer-union contract was held to be properly invoked by a union member in suing for back wages. The court stated: "To rule otherwise would deprive the plaintiff of any remedy for work already performed under the terms of the contract between his union and his employer."

Amendment of New Zealand Conciliation and Arbitration Law

ON August 26, 1943, an amendment to the Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act of 1925 was passed by the New Zealand Parliament, with the purpose of strengthening protection against loss of jobs of workers who are active in unions.[1] The original act forbade an employer to dismiss a worker or change the worker's job on account of his union activity, but if the employer gave any other reason, no matter how trivial, for the dismissal, no action could be taken. Under the revised law the employer must prove that the worker was dismissed for some reason other than having been concerned in a claim for benefit, having been a recipient of benefit, or having given evidence in any proceeding under the principal act.

The same amendment also provides a new procedure for the recovery by workers of money due them under awards and industrial agreements. Proceedings may be commenced either in a magistrate's court or in the Court of Arbitration, but the decision of the latter court is final; an employer can no longer appeal to a higher civil court, as was previously permitted.

[1] Data are from a report by Basil D. Dahl, United States commercial attaché, Wellington, N. Z. (No. 68).

Immigration and Emigration

Immigration and Emigration in 1942-43

IN THE fiscal year closing June 30, 1943, the number of aliens admitted into the United States was 104,842; of these 81,117 were nonimmigrants. The total immigration to the United States in 1943 was the lowest recorded since 1862, when the number of aliens arriving in this country was only 91,985.

Emigration in the year 1942–43 reached the lowest ebb ever recorded, 58,722. Of this total, 53,615 were nonemigrant aliens and 5,107 were emigrant aliens leaving the United States without intention to return.

In table 1 information on immigration for the 5 fiscal years ending June 30, 1943, is given:[1]

TABLE 1.—*Immigration and Emigration for 5 Fiscal Years Ending June 30, 1939–43*

[Preliminary figures]

Class of aliens	1938–39	1939–40	1940–41	1941–42	1942–43
Aliens admitted	268,331	208,788	151,784	111,238	104,842
Immigrant	82,998	70,756	51,776	28,781	23,725
Nonimmigrant	185,333	138,032	100,008	82,457	81,117
Aliens departed	201,409	166,164	88,477	74,552	58,722
Emigrant	26,651	21,461	17,115	7,363	5,107
Nonemigrant	174,758	144,703	71,362	67,189	53,615
Excess alien admissions over departures	66,922	42,624	63,307	36,686	46,12

In table 2 immigrant aliens admitted to the United States in the fiscal years 1938–39 to 1942–43, are classified by race or people. A heavy reduction since 1941 is, of course, shown in the numbers of alien immigrants from countries with which the United States is at war. A great decline in the number of Jewish arrivals is also reported.

[1] Monthly Review (U. S. Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service, Washington), August 1943.

TABLE 2.—*Immigrant Aliens Admitted in Fiscal Years Ended June 30, 1939–43, by Race or People*

Race or people	1938–39	1939–40	1940–41	1941–42	1942–43
All races	82,998	70,756	51,776	28,781	23,725
Armenian	193	181	93	61	52
Bohemian and Moravian	264	188	437	110	88
Bulgarian, Serbian, and Montenegrin	397	276	56	23	36
Chinese	124	106	73	13	4
Croatian and Slovenian	457	292	81	37	46
Cuban	558	548	596	551	551
Dalmatian, Bosnian, and Herzegovinian	73	44	22	15	3
Dutch and Flemish	758	1,087	1,344	386	381
East Indian	2	3			1
English	5,076	4,889	6,115	3,802	3,629
Filipino	56	55	56	18	4
Finnish	439	298	366	78	96
French	2,214	2,363	3,283	2,363	1,763
German	5,524	3,556	2,154	800	498
Greek	992	1,049	410	263	378
Hebrew	43,450	36,945	23,737	10,608	4,705
Irish	2,968	2,548	1,883	1,707	1,511
Italian	6,708	5,512	696	146	150
Japanese	57	48	30	7	
Korean	3	2	7		
Lithuanian	131	99	121	64	73
Magyar	614	561	279	131	86
Negro	304	315	229	171	198
Polish	868	467	686	436	434
Portuguese	509	516	395	201	312
Rumanian	98	102	90	84	37
Russian	840	671	940	269	211
Ruthenian (Russniak)	198	118	98	80	57
Scandinavian (Danes, Norwegians, and Swedes)	1,563	1,514	1,351	594	625
Scotch	1,968	1,946	1,865	1,649	1,387
Slovak	991	349	163	102	129
Spanish	428	435	443	292	404
Spanish-American	826	922	1,148	1,132	1,444
Syrian	282	193	150	94	80
Turkish	34	18	15	18	23
Welsh	134	105	97	88	89
West Indian (except Cuban)	292	166	152	127	186
Others	2,605	2,269	2,115	2,261	4,054

Wage and Hour Statistics

Trends in Factory Earnings, 1939 to September 1943

THE published average earnings of factory workers are summarized in the following table for selected months, January 1939 to September 1943.[1] For the last of these months, all of these averages were abnormally high because of the inclusion of substantial amounts of premium pay for work on Labor Day.

Average Money Earnings of Workers in Manufacturing, Selected Months, 1939 to September 1943

Month and year	Average weekly earnings			Average hourly earnings			Estimated straight-time average hourly earnings [1]			Estimated straight-time average hourly earnings weighted by January 1939 employment [2]		
	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Nondurable goods	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Nondurable goods	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Nondurable goods	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Nondurable goods
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
January 1939	$23.19	$25.33	$21.57	$0.632	$0.696	$0.583	$0.623	$0.688	$0.574	$0.623	$0.688	$0.574
January 1940	24.56	27.39	22.01	.655	.717	.598	.644	.703	.589	.635	.697	.589
January 1941	26.64	30.48	22.75	.685	.749	.610	.664	.722	.601	.648	.711	.600
July 1941	29.62	33.90	25.16	.735	.815	.645	.708	.780	.630	.689	.771	.628
January 1942	33.40	38.98	26.97	.801	.890	.688	.762	.835	.670	.729	.810	.667
July 1942	36.43	42.51	28.94	.856	.949	.725	.809	.856	.701	.759	.846	.694
October 1942	38.89	45.51	30.66	.893	.990	.751	.839	.919	.723	.782	.869	.716
January 1943	40.62	46.68	32.10	.919	1.017	.768	.859	.941	.753	.794	.886	.724
April 1943	42.48	48.67	33.58	.944	1.040	.790	.878	.957	.751	.808	.897	.741
July 1943	42.76	48.76	34.01	.963	1.060	.806	.899	.981	.766	.823	.919	.750
August 1943	43.52	49.61	34.47	.965	1.060	.811	.897	.976	.769	.822	.911	.755
September 1943 [3]	44.39	51.06	34.73	.993	1.098	.823	.925	1.012	.783	.843	.942	.767

[1] Average hourly earnings, excluding the effect of premium pay for overtime.
[2] Average hourly earnings, excluding premium pay for overtime, weighted by man-hours of employment in the major divisions of the manufacturing industry for January 1939.
[3] Preliminary.

Weekly earnings in all manufacturing averaged $44.39 in September 1943—91 percent above the average in January 1939, 67 percent above January 1941, and 14 percent above October 1942. Average weekly earnings are shown on a gross basis, before deductions for social security, income and victory taxes, bond purchases, etc. Such factors as longer hours of work, premium pay for overtime work and shifts of employment, as well as wage-rate increases, account for the rise in weekly earnings.

Gross hourly earnings in all manufacturing averaged 99.3 cents in September 1943—57 percent above the average in January 1939, 45 percent above January 1941, and 11 percent above October 1942. The rise in these averages reflects increased work at overtime rates and shifts in employment, as well as wage-rate increases.

[1] Compare "Trends in Factory Wages, 1939–43," Monthly Labor Review, November 1943, pp. 869–884, especially table 4, p. 879. For more detailed data regarding weekly earnings, see Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, September 1943, table 6, page 1265.

Straight-time average hourly earnings, as shown in columns 7–9, are estimated to exclude premium pay at time and a half for work in excess of 40 hours. Extra pay for work on extra shifts and on holidays is included. For all manufacturing, the straight-time average in September 1943 was 92.5 cents per hour; this was 48 percent higher than in January 1939, 39 percent above January 1941, and 10 percent above October 1942. Because of the influence of premium pay for work done on Labor Day, the August figure is more nearly comparable than September with other figures shown. August straight-time earnings were 44 percent higher than in January 1939, 35 percent higher than in January 1941, and 7 percent higher than in October 1942.

The shift of workers from relatively low-wage to relatively high-wage industries since 1939 would have raised the average earnings of factory workers, even if no other influences had been present. The effects of such interindustry shifts have been eliminated from the averages shown in columns 10–12 of the table. If employment had been distributed between industries as it was in January 1939, the straight-time earnings of factory workers would have averaged 84.3 cents in September 1943, or 35 percent above the corresponding average in January 1939, 30 percent above January 1941, and 7.8 percent above October 1942. Even this latter series of averages exaggerates the rise in wage rates because it includes the influence of interplant shifts of employment, merit increases for individual workers, and premium rates for work on extra shifts and on holidays.

Correction: Article in November Issue

In the article on the trend in factory wages, appearing in the November issue of the Monthly Labor Review, the following correction should be made on page 871: In the second line under table 1, the word "unemployment" should be substituted for the word "employment," so that the sentence reads: "Such unemployment as remained was mainly of the temporary type, * * *." Minor changes in estimated straight-time average hourly earnings have also been made, as may be seen by comparison with the table on the preceding page.

Wages in Smelting and Refining of Nonferrous Metals, June 1943[1]

FULLY half of all the workers covered in a recent study by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of primary smelting establishments were in occupations for which the average earnings were between 85 cents and $1.00 an hour and more than one-fourth were in occupations for which earnings exceeded $1.00 an hour. In each of the three types of smelters for which figures are shown, workers tended to concentrate at somewhat different wage levels. For example, somewhat more than half of the workers in the copper smelters were in occupations with average hourly earnings ranging from 80 to 95 cents; slightly

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis by Edith M. Olsen under the direction of Victor S. Baril. Second of two articles on wages in the nonferrous-metals industry, the first of which (in Monthly Labor Review, November 1943) covered the mining and milling of nonferrous metals.

over three-fifths of the workers in lead smelters were employed in occupations with average hourly earnings between 80 and 90 cents an hour; more than half of the workers studied in zinc smelters were in occupations in which average hourly earnings ranged from 85 cents to $1.00 an hour.

In primary refining establishments, more than two-thirds of the workers studied were in occupations having average hourly earnings from 85 cents to $1.00 an hour. In electrolytic copper refineries, more than three-fifths of the workers were in occupational groups whose average hourly earnings ranged from 85 cents to $1.00 an hour, while in electrolytic zinc refineries nearly three-fourths of the workers were in occupations with average hourly earnings ranging from 90 cents to $1.00 an hour.

Average hourly earnings for workers in selected occupations in secondary smelters ranged from 63.8 cents an hour for watchmen to $1.178 an hour for class A machinists. Blast-furnace and reverberatory-furnace operators, and furnace operators' helpers, together accounted for fully two-fifths of all the workers studied, and were paid average hourly earnings of 88.6 and 79.9 cents an hour. Average hourly earnings of more than $1.00 an hour were paid only to workers in some of the maintenance occupations.

Primary Smelting and Refining

SCOPE AND METHOD OF SURVEY

As has been mentioned earlier, the Bureau's survey included smelting and refining, as well as mining and milling. Smelters extract the metal or metals from the ore in a furnace by reduction. Refineries, as the name implies, further refine the metals by removing impurities. Of the several refining processes, the electrolytic process is perhaps the most general.

The survey included virtually all establishments engaged in the primary smelting and refining of copper, lead, and zinc. These plants are scattered over 24 States. Of the 60 establishments studied, 47 with 10,240 workers were primary smelters, and 13 with 3,742 workers were refineries.

TABLE 1.—*Nonferrous-Metal Smelters and Refineries Covered by Bureau's Survey, June 1943*

Branch	Primary smelting			Refining		
	Number of units	Workers		Number of units	Workers	
		Number	Percent		Number	Percent
All branches	47	10,240	100.0	13	3,742	100.0
Copper	19	4,045	39.5	8	2,539	67.9
Lead	13	1,653	16.1			
Zinc	15	4,542	44.4	5	1,203	32.1

Separate tabulations of the average hourly earnings are presented in this report for each process, i. e., for smelting and refining and, whenever possible, for separate metals within each process. Thus, separate

figures are shown for copper smelters, zinc smelters, lead smelters, electrolytic copper refineries, and electrolytic zinc refineries. The wage data have been shown by region in all cases where there was a sufficient number of plants and workers to permit such an analysis. Regional divisions used for purposes of presenting the data necessarily vary from one branch of the industry to another. The selected occupations for each division are grouped by type of operation.

THE LABOR FORCE

The labor force in primary smelting and refining establishments is composed almost exclusively of male workers. Separate occupational averages are not shown for the few female workers who came within the scope of the present study.

Because of differences in production processes, there are also wide variations from one plant to another in the occupational composition of the labor force. These variations are indicated by the number of plants represented in each occupational classification. The wage data shown for copper smelting provide a good example of the variations in occupational structure between plants in the same division of the industry. Although most of the important processing occupations are found in the majority of the 19 copper-smelting establishments, some occupations (for example, bag-house operators, binmen, and roaster and sinter firemen) were found only in a relatively small number of plants.

The working force in the nonferrous-metal smelting and refining industry is very extensively organized by labor unions. Over 95 percent of the workers surveyed in refining operations were employed in plants having union agreements; similarly, union plants employed 77.2 percent of the workers studied in primary smelters. The International Union of Mine, Mill and Smelter Workers accounted for the greater part of union membership in primary smelters and refineries.

WAGE-PAYMENT PRACTICES

Practically all of the workers studied in nonferrous-metal refineries were paid on a time basis; the few workers who were paid under incentive methods of wage payment were employed in copper refineries. In the primary smelters 94.2 percent of all workers were paid on a time basis; time rates were paid to all workers in copper smelters, to 93 percent of the workers in lead smelters, and to 89.7 percent of the workers in zinc smelters.

Most of the primary smelters and refineries reported the operation of three shifts. The majority of the workers, however (63 percent in smelting and nearly 75 percent in refining), were employed on the first shift. None of the primary smelters or refineries reported the payment of shift differentials; rotation of shifts was practiced in approximately one-half of the plants studied.

All employees in the primary smelting and refining establishments surveyed were compensated at the rate of time and a half for all work above 40 hours a week; in about nine-tenths of the plants this overtime rate was also paid after 8 hours per day.

Of the 55 primary smelters and refineries reporting established entrance rates for male common labor, 32 paid these workers starting rates of between 70 and 85 cents an hour.

OCCUPATIONAL EARNINGS

Copper smelting.—Over one-half (54.6 percent) of the 4,045 workers in the 19 copper smelters studied were employed in the 17 occupations having average earnings between 80 and 95 cents an hour (table 2). Aside from an average rate of $1.04 paid working foremen, earnings of more than $1.00 an hour were found in only 4 occupations, all of which were class A maintenance occupations. The 445 converter helpers, who formed the largest occupational group, earned 84.3 cents an hour. Two other numerically important processing occupations—converter punchers and reverberatory-furnace helpers—had average hourly earnings of 84.9 and 78.5 cents respectively. In the material-movement group of occupations, loaders and unloaders earned an average of 78.7 cents an hour. The range in average hourly earnings for workers in the 31 selected occupations for which figures are shown was from 76.8 cents for watchmen to $1.282 for class A bricklayers.

TABLE 2.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings of Workers in Selected Occupations in Copper Smelting, by Region,*[1] *June 1943*

Occupation	Total[2]			Northwest		
	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings
Maintenance:						
Bricklayers, refractory brick, class A	9	35	$1.282	3	18	$1.228
Carpenters, class A	9	140	1.061	4	105	1.063
Carpenters, class B	7	42	.955	1	5	(3)
Electricians, class A	14	123	1.070	4	61	1.066
Electricians, class B	9	44	.975	1	5	(3)
Helpers, journeymen	11	264	.882	4	150	.957
Machinists, class A	12	107	1.073	4	59	1.067
Machinists, class B	10	46	.938	1	7	(3)
Maintenance men, general	3	178	.952	1	103	(3)
Supervision:						
Working foremen, processing departments	8	53	1.040	1	14	(3)
Processing:						
Bag-house operators	4	15	.888			
Binmen	8	100	.844	3	66	.913
Casting-machine operators	12	99	.866	2	44	.975
Converter helpers, all-round	9	445	.843	2	30	.952
Converter punchers	14	264	.849	4	82	.935
Converter skimmers	15	130	.963	4	34	1.003
Cottrell operators	9	76	.953	4	54	.993
Reverberatory-furnace chargers	10	52	.840	2	15	.916
Reverberatory-furnace helpers, all-round	15	268	.785	4	96	.925
Reverberatory-furnace operators	18	157	.933	5	31	1.089
Reverberatory-furnace tappers	16	82	.891	4	24	.962
Roaster and sinter firemen	8	73	.913	3	33	.955
Inspection and testing:						
Samplers	12	79	.832	3	30	.960
Recording and control:						
Weighers, metal	11	90	.919	2	8	.963
Material movement:						
Crane followers	15	72	.857	5	34	.958
Crane operators, electric bridge	17	199	.969	5	78	1.010
Loaders and unloaders	13	355	.787	3	90	.888
Motormen	15	200	.908	4	132	.978
Custodial:						
Guards	7	128	.885	3	78	.940
Janitors	11	54	.810	3	25	.893
Watchmen	8	85	.768	3	33	.853

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings of Workers in Selected Occupations in Copper Smelting, by Region,*[1] *June 1943*—Continued

Occupation	Southwest			East		
	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings
Maintenance:						
Bricklayers, refractory brick, class A	5	12	$1.229	1	5	(3)
Carpenters, class A	3	10	.986	2	25	$1.083
Carpenters, class B	2	20	.949	3	14	.967
Electricians, class A	6	33	1.012	4	29	1.144
Electricians, class B	3	23	.947	3	13	1.037
Helpers, journeymen	6	107	.787	1	7	(3)
Machinists, class A	5	25	1.017	3	23	1.152
Machinists, class B	5	20	.929	2	9	1.060
Maintenance men, general	1	54	(3)			
Supervision:						
Working foremen, processing departments	6	37	1.019	1	2	(3)
Processing:						
Bag-house operators	1	1	(3)	3	14	.910
Binmen	5	34	.711			
Casting-machine operators	5	13	.792	3	3	.848
Converter helpers, all-round	4	63	.626	3	352	.872
Converter punchers	7	154	.771	3	28	1.023
Converter skimmers	7	55	.903	4	41	1.011
Cottrell operators	4	17	.832	1	5	(3)
Reverberatory-furnace chargers	4	16	.779	3	13	.900
Reverberatory-furnace helpers, all-round	6	110	.707	3	8	.879
Reverberatory-furnace operators	8	50	.880	3	60	.940
Reverberatory-furnace tappers	6	33	.777	4	22	.994
Roaster and sinter firemen	4	25	.841	1	15	(3)
Inspection and testing:						
Samplers	6	39	.733	3	10	.834
Recording and control:						
Weighers, metal	4	5	.865	4	75	.921
Material movement:						
Crane followers	7	28	.742	3	10	.836
Crane operators, electric bridge	8	64	.937	3	55	.957
Loaders and unloaders	6	88	.649	3	171	.807
Motormen	7	50	.789	2	8	.733
Custodial:						
Guards	3	13	.829	1	32	(3)
Janitors	6	20	.704	2	9	.815
Watchmen	3	44	.720			

[1] Northwest region includes Montana, Nevada, Utah, and Washington; Southwest region includes Arizona, New Mexico, and Texas; Eastern region includes New Jersey, New York, and Tennessee.

[2] Includes 2 plants in Michigan. Average hourly earnings by occupation for these two plants are as follows: Electricians, class B, 76.5 cents; machinists, class B, 76.1 cents; casting-machine operators, 73.5 cents; reverberatory-furnace helpers, all-round, 67.8 cents; reverberatory-furnace operators, 77.1 cents; reverberatory-furnace tappers, 81.9 cents; motormen, 70.4 cents; watchmen, 68.3 cents.

[3] Too few workers and/or plants to warrant the computation of an average.

In each of the three broad regions for which figures are shown, well over half of the workers were found in occupations having average hourly earnings within a 10-cent range. In the Northwest region, the range was from 90 cents to $1.00; in the East from 80 to 90 cents; and in the Southwest, from 70 to 80 cents. These concentrations indicate, in a general way, substantial regional variations in earnings. Regional averages based on data for 18 identical occupations, comprising roughly three-fourths of the workers covered, further confirm these variations. Thus, the earnings of workers in these selected occupations averaged 78.3 cents an hour in the Southwest region, 91.8 cents an hour in the Eastern region, and 97.0 cents an hour in the Northwest region.

Zinc smelting.—Straight-time average hourly earnings for workers in selected occupations in the 15 primary zinc smelters studied ranged from 79.5 cents an hour for guards to $1.287 an hour for lead burners (table 3). Nearly three-fourths of all the workers were in occupations with average earnings in excess of 90 cents an hour and 45

percent were in occupations with average earnings of over $1.00 an hour. Three occupational groups, chargers, metal drawers, and loaders and unloaders, which accounted for almost a third of the workers studied, had hourly earnings of $1.003, $1.007, and 85.9 cents, respectively.

A regional comparison of the earnings of workers in occupations for which figures are shown in two or more regions indicates that the East had higher average earnings than either of the other two regions in all but two of the occupational groups, namely, class A bricklayers and class B machinists. The highest average hourly earnings in the East ($1.448) were paid to lead burners. This compares with a high of $1.246 for workers in the same occupation in the North Central region and a high of $1.292 for class A bricklayers in the South Central region.

TABLE 3.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings of Workers in Selected Occupations in Zinc Smelters, by Region,*[1] *June 1943*

Occupation	Total			South Central		
	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings
Maintenance:						
Bricklayers, refractory brick, class A	6	39	$1.269	3	3	$1.292
Bricklayers, refractory brick, class B	4	11	.993			
Carpenters, class A	7	19	1.115	3	12	1.080
Carpenters, class B	7	37	1.007	2	6	.950
Electricians, class A	10	24	1.109	5	14	1.045
Electricians, class B	11	41	1.039	4	7	.950
Gas-producer operators	6	155	1.039			
Helpers, journeymen	10	129	.905	3	17	.836
Machinists, class A	7	25	1.134	3	7	1.058
Machinists, class B	8	76	1.041	3	18	.974
Supervision:						
Working foremen, processing departments	8	65	1.211	5	43	1.162
Processing:						
Bag-house operators	8	35	.954	4	17	.898
Binmen	6	64	.874	4	53	.846
Chambermen (acid department)	7	56	1.052	1	12	(2)
Chargers, retorts, hand	14	526	1.003	7	278	.993
Chiselers	13	340	.925	7	175	.926
Condenser makers (pottery department)	14	75	.941	7	43	.907
Connie boys	14	315	.897	7	164	.895
Lead burners (acid department)	8	39	1.287	1	10	(2)
Loaders	13	287	.933	6	120	.913
Metal drawers	15	451	1.007	7	205	.973
Mill operators (crush, grind, and mix)	13	110	.911	6	63	.889
Retort firemen	14	261	1.112	6	118	1.070
Retort press operators	11	42	.898	6	30	.877
Roaster and sinter firemen	14	207	1.036	7	66	.969
Stampers	11	282	.958	7	155	.924
Inspection and testing:						
Samplers	9	19	.897	1	3	(2)
Recording and control:						
Weighers, metal	10	24	.896	5	14	.843
Material movement:						
Crane operators, electric bridge	4	11	1.115	1	1	(2)
Loaders and unloaders	12	493	.859	6	273	.818
Motormen	7	84	.897	3	49	.894
Truckers, hand	6	78	.875	3	55	.854
Custodial:						
Guards	9	37	.795	5	15	.754
Janitors	9	42	.827	4	20	.845
Watchmen	7	43	.893	2	12	.762

[1] South Central region includes Oklahoma, Texas, and Arkansas; North Central region includes Illinois; Eastern region includes Pennsylvania and West Virginia.

[2] Too few workers and/or plants to warrant computation of an average.

TABLE 3.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings of Workers in Selected Occupations in Zinc Smelters, by Region,*[1] *June 1943*—Continued

Occupation	North Central			East		
	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings
Maintenance:						
Bricklayers, refractory brick, class A				3	36	$1.267
Bricklayers, refractory brick, class B	3	6	$0.997	1	5	(2)
Carpenters, class A	1	2	(2)	3	5	1.185
Carpenters, class B	2	12	.877	3	19	1.108
Electricians, class A	1	2	(2)	4	8	1.209
Electricians, class B	3	6	1.013	4	28	1.067
Gas-producer operators	1	9	(2)	5	146	1.043
Helpers, journeymen	3	55	.831	4	57	.998
Machinists, class A	2	7	1.050	2	11	1.236
Machinists, class B	3	25	1.082	2	33	1.046
Supervision:						
Working foremen, processing departments	1	1	(2)	2	21	1.325
Processing:						
Bag-house operators	2	6	.863	2	12	1.081
Binmen				2	11	1.012
Chambermen (acid department)	3	20	.931	3	24	1.196
Chargers, retorts, hand	3	97	.921	4	151	1.073
Chiselers	2	50	.806	4	115	.974
Condenser makers (pottery department)	3	18	.942	4	14	1.043
Connie boys	2	26	.757	5	125	.930
Lead burners (acid department)	3	11	1.246	4	18	1.448
Loaners	3	94	.893	4	73	1.018
Metal drawers	3	93	.918	5	153	1.106
Mill operators (crush, grind, and mix)	3	21	.809	4	26	1.044
Retort firemen	3	53	1.026	5	90	1.218
Retort press operators	3	6	.830	2	6	1.074
Roaster and sinter firemen	3	63	.893	4	78	1.208
Stampers	1	50	(2)	3	77	1.043
Inspection and testing:						
Samplers	3	5	.816	5	11	.959
Recording and control:						
Weighers, metal	3	7	.924	2	3	1.078
Material movement:						
Crane operators, electric bridge	1	1	(2)	2	9	1.151
Loaders and unloaders	3	76	.859	3	144	.937
Motormen	2	18	.775	2	17	1.036
Truckers, hand				3	23	.927
Custodial:						
Guards	2	11	.806	2	11	.840
Janitors	2	13	.783	3	9	.849
Watchmen	2	6	.793	3	25	.980

[1] South Central region includes Oklahoma, Texas, and Arkansas; North Central region includes Illinois; Eastern region includes Pennsylvania and West Virginia.
[2] Too few workers and/or plants to warrant computation of an average.

Seven-eighths of the employees in the South Central region and nearly three-fourths of those in the North Central region were in occupations having average hourly earnings between 80 cents and $1.00 an hour. In the Eastern region slightly less than one-third of the workers were in occupations with earnings within that range, but fully two-thirds were in occupations averaging $1.00 or more an hour. The substantially higher level of earnings in the East is clearly indicated by general regional averages based on data for 22 identical occupations. Workers in these occupations in the Eastern region earned 11.4 cents more per hour on the average than similar workers in the South Central region and 15.7 cents an hour more than similar workers in the North Central region.

Lead smelting.—In the 13 lead smelters studied in the Bureau survey, average hourly earnings varied from 76.6 cents for watchmen to $1.215 for class A bricklayers (table 4). Approximately 62 percent of the workers were in occupations with average earnings between 80 and 90 cents an hour. In only one occupation in the processing depart-

ment, that of desilverizing kettlemen, did workers average over $1.00 an hour. The highest earnings were found in the maintenance department, where well over two-fifths of the workers were in 6 occupational classifications with average earnings in excess of $1.00 an hour. Loaders and unloaders, the largest occupational group, earned an average of 89.7 cents an hour. Janitors and watchmen were the only workers receiving earnings below 80 cents an hour.

TABLE 4.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings of Workers in Selected Occupations in Lead Smelting, by Region,*[1] *June 1943*

Occupation	Total			West			Midwest		
	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings
Maintenance:									
Bricklayers, refractory brick, class A	6	11	$1.215	4	9	$1.209	2	2	$1.243
Bricklayers, refractory brick, class B	2	3	1.062	1	2	(2)	1	1	(2)
Carpenters, class A	9	59	1.060	7	56	1.056	2	3	1.147
Carpenters, class B	7	22	.962	3	10	.987	4	12	.942
Electricians, class A	9	38	1.034	6	26	1.038	3	12	1.027
Electricians, class B	7	17	1.026	3	8	1.002	4	9	1.046
Helpers, journeymen	10	145	.839	5	113	.839	5	32	.838
Machinists, class A	10	50	1.050	7	41	1.055	3	9	1.027
Machinists, class B	8	23	.945	4	14	.941	4	9	.951
Maintenance men, general	3	35	.996	-------	-------	-------	3	35	.996
Supervision:									
Working foremen, processing departments	4	22	1.102	3	19	1.120	1	3	(2)
Processing—Smelting department:									
Bag-house operators	9	57	.944	6	40	.956	3	17	.917
Binmen	5	26	.813	4	23	.811	1	3	(2)
Blast-furnace chargers	10	81	.818	6	45	.860	4	36	.765
Blast-furnace operators	9	46	.896	6	27	.947	3	19	.823
Blast-furnace tappers	9	65	.893	5	43	.891	4	22	.847
Crushermen	6	44	.890	5	42	.888	1	2	(2)
Roaster and sinter firemen	8	70	.828	7	55	.839	1	15	(2)
Processing—Refining department:									
Casting-machine operators	7	49	.940	3	26	.949	4	23	.930
Desilverizing kettlemen	3	18	1.061	2	14	.937	1	4	(2)
Dross kettlemen	8	47	.843	3	19	.858	5	28	.833
Furnace helpers, all-round	8	76	.850	5	59	.861	3	17	.813
Furnace operators (refining and softening)	5	43	.931	3	29	.963	2	14	.864
Inspection and testing:									
Samplers	10	67	.878	6	61	.880	4	6	.856
Recording and control:									
Weighers, metal	10	32	.943	6	24	.939	4	8	.952
Material movement:									
Crane followers	3	13	.827	1	7	(2)	2	6	(2)
Crane operators, electric bridge	10	55	.934	6	42	.930	4	13	.943
Loaders and unloaders	10	164	.897	6	131	.845	4	33	1.104
Motormen	7	93	.875	5	58	.886	2	35	.857
Truckers, hand	3	27	.829	2	15	.849	1	12	(2)
Custodial:									
Guards	7	58	.858	4	35	.894	3	23	.802
Janitors (including change-house men)	12	57	.798	6	35	.833	6	22	.742
Watchmen	8	40	.766	5	23	.776	3	17	.752

[1] West region includes California, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Texas and Utah; Midwest region includes Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Missouri and Nebraska.
[2] Too few workers and/or plants to warrant computation of an average.

In both the West and the Midwest, the highest average hourly earnings, $1.209 and $1.243, respectively, were received by class A bricklayers, and the lowest earnings found in each of these regions were received by watchmen (77.6 cents an hour) in the West, and janitors (74.2 cents an hour) in the Midwest. In approximately one-half of the occupational groups for which figures are presented, there is

considerable uniformity in the averages for the West and the Midwest. Averages for these two regions, based on 25 identical jobs and using constant weights, indicate an absolute difference of less than 1 cent between the two regions.

Electrolytic copper refining.—The earnings of workers in the 8 electrolytic copper refineries studied ranged from a low of 81.8 cents an hour for janitors to a high of $1.329 an hour for class A bricklayers (table 5). Somewhat more than three-fifths of all the workers studied were found in the 21 occupations having average earnings of between 85 cents and $1.00 an hour. All workers in occupations classified in the maintenance group, excluding class B electricians and journeymen's helpers, earned more than $1.00 an hour. Well over two-fifths of the workers were employed in 17 processing occupations; in only 2 of these occupations, however, strippers and reverberatory-furnace operators, did workers earn as much as $1.00 an hour. Ingot inspectors and crane operators, the 2 largest occupational groups, averaged 90.3 cents and 91.1 cents an hour, respectively.

TABLE 5.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings of Workers in Selected Occupations in Electrolytic Copper Refining, by Region,[1] June 1943*

Occupation	Total			East			Other States		
	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings
Maintenance:									
Bricklayers, refractory brick, class A	3	16	$1.329	1	13	(2)	2	3	(2)
Carpenters, class A	6	81	1.092	5	43	$1.117	1	38	(2)
Carpenters, class B	5	23	1.036	4	21	1.052	1	2	(2)
Electricians, class A	6	53	1.107	4	30	1.156	2	23	$1.044
Electricians, class B	5	36	.985	4	31	1.010	1	5	(2)
Helpers, journeymen	3	89	.914	1	26	(2)	2	63	.944
Machinists, class A	6	87	1.126	5	72	1.140	1	15	(2)
Machinists, class B	5	53	1.028	5	53	1.028			
Supervision:									
Working foremen, processing departments	4	45	1.025	2	20	.976	2	25	1.065
Processing:									
Circulation men, tanks	7	91	.903	5	82	.896	2	9	.966
Electrolytic-tank operators	7	32	.940	4	20	.976	3	12	.881
Hot-sheet men	4	137	.835	3	104	.927	1	33	(2)
Loopers and punchers	5	49	.970	4	47	.988	1	2	(2)
Strippers	7	130	1.008	5	100	1.058	2	30	.842
Washers and cleaners	8	86	.904	5	39	.871	3	47	.932
Casting-machine operators	7	40	.960	4	16	.960	3	24	.960
Furnace helpers, all-round	5	48	.880	2	12	.901	3	36	.873
Ladlers (mold casting)	7	53	.896	5	34	.895	2	19	.897
Reverberatory-furnace chargers	6	47	.938	4	37	.935	2	10	.951
Reverberatory-furnace operators	6	104	1.006	4	98	1.019	2	6	.794
Wheelmen	8	160	.949	5	152	.953	3	8	.862
Filter operators	3	10	.902	2	7	.873	1	3	(2)
Furnace operators	5	35	.969	4	32	.963	1	3	(2)
Leach operators	6	36	.928	5	34	.942	1	2	(2)
Process operators	5	29	.943	4	21	.945	1	8	(2)
Roaster and sinter firemen	3	27	.830	3	27	.830			
Inspection and testing:									
Inspectors, ingots	7	225	.903	5	218	.911	2	7	.649
Samplers	8	123	.902	5	119	.906	3	4	.782
Voltmeter men (tankhouse)	7	55	.834	4	27	.926	3	28	.745
Recording and control:									
Weighers, copper	6	51	.908	3	37	.907	3	14	.910
Material movement:									
Crane followers	7	86	.842	5	72	.826	2	14	.926
Crane operators, electric bridge	7	273	.911	5	252	.913	2	21	.882
Motormen	6	30	.853	4	20	.935	2	10	.691
Custodial:									
Guards	2	51	.877	1	34	(2)	1	17	(2)
Janitors	5	48	.818	4	45	.812	1	3	(2)

[1] East includes Maryland, New Jersey, and New York; "Other States" include Montana, Texas, and Washington.

[2] Too few workers and/or plants to warrant computation of an average.

The regional analysis is presented in table 5 principally to show separate earnings data for the 5 plants in the Eastern region. The 3 plants represented in the earnings shown for "other States" are widely scattered (one in each of the States of Montana, Texas, and Washington) and the combined averages for these three plants have very limited significance. It will be noted also that the average hourly earnings for workers in the East have a dominating influence on the averages shown for all 8 copper refineries, because of the relatively large number of workers in the Eastern plants.

Nearly three-fourths of the workers studied in the 5 Eastern electrolytic copper refineries were in occupations with average earnings of between 80 cents and $1.00 an hour, and all of the remaining workers were in occupations averaging $1.00 or more an hour.

Electrolytic zinc refining.—The information presented for electrolytic zinc refineries is based on data for 1,203 workers in 5 widely scattered plants (table 6). Over 90 precent of the workers in these plants were in occupations averaging 90 cents or more an hour. The highest average ($1.146 an hour) was earned by class A electricians and the lowest average (70 cents an hour) by loaders and unloaders. Strippers, who formed the largest occupational group (320 workers), earned an average of 99 cents an hour. Leach operators, the second largest occupational group, had average hourly earnings of 92.8 cents an hour. With the exception of journeymen's helpers, who earned 90.7 cents an hour, all workers in the maintenance occupational groups averaged more than $1.00 an hour.

TABLE 6.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings of Workers in Selected Occupations in Electrolytic Zinc Refining, June 1943* [1]

Occupation	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings
Maintenance:			
Carpenters, class A	3	32	$1.076
Carpenters, class B	2	3	1.071
Electricians, class A	4	23	1.146
Helpers, journeymen	4	47	.907
Machinists, class A	4	14	1.140
Supervision:			
Working foremen, processing departments	4	49	1.099
Processing:			
Electrolytic-tank operators	5	93	.966
Filter operators	5	66	1.007
Furnace operators (casting)	3	46	.979
Furnace operators' helpers, all-round	3	22	.970
Ladlers	5	76	.971
Leach operators	5	158	.928
Roaster firemen	3	70	.974
Strippers	5	320	.990
Inspection and testing:			
Samplers	5	23	.912
Recording and control:			
Weighers, metal	3	5	1.120
Material movement:			
Loaders and unloaders	3	29	.700
Truck drivers	4	53	1.004
Truckers, hand	3	18	.894
Custodial:			
Guards	2	26	.861
Janitors	4	13	.796
Watchmen	3	17	.924

[1] States included are Idaho, Illinois, Montana, and Texas.

Secondary Smelting

Secondary smelting plants are engaged in the reclaiming or salvaging of nonferrous metals from either old or new scrap material.

The impurities in this scrap material are removed by various heating processes, and the pure metal recovered from such scrap is then usually poured into ingots.

The Bureau's survey of nonferrous-metal secondary smelters included 79 plants, most of which are situated in or near large cities. Each of the plants covered employed 9 or more workers, and detailed occupational wage data were obtained for a total of 4,611 workers.

Incentive-wage systems are not commonly used in secondary smelters. At the time of the survey more than 95 percent of the workers in these establishments were paid on a time basis. All workers were compensated at the rate of time and a half for work above 40 hours a week. In 56 plants, this overtime rate was also paid for all work in excess of 8 hours a day. Forty-nine of the 67 smelters reporting established entrance rates for male common labor paid hourly rates to these workers of between 65 and 80 cents. At the time of the survey, 83.4 percent of the workers covered were employed in plants having union agreements.

Sixty-four of the plants studied operated more than one shift. Approximately two-thirds of the workers were employed on the first or daylight shift, one-fifth on the second or evening shift, and 15 percent on the third or night shift. Shift differentials were paid to workers on the second and third shift in only 8 of the 64 plants operating more than one shift.

In addition to figures for the country as a whole, detailed data are also presented for three broad regions, West, Central, and East.

AVERAGE HOURLY EARNINGS BY OCCUPATION

Straight-time average hourly earnings for 4,611 workers classified into 25 selected occupational groups are shown in table 7. Women workers were found in only one occupation—class C hand scrap sorters. A separate average is not shown for the 9 women employed in this occupation, because the difference between their hourly earnings and those of male workers in the same occupation is negligible.

For all secondary smelters included in the survey, the range in average hourly earnings was from 63.8 cents an hour for watchmen to $1.178 an hour for class A machinists. The range in hourly earnings for processing occupations was from 74.9 cents for class C scrap sorters to 90.6 cents for class B grinding-machine operators. Furnace operators' helpers, who accounted for roughly one-fourth of all the workers studied, were paid an average of 79.9 cents an hour. Blast- and reverberatory-furnace operators and potmen together accounted for well over one-fourth of the total number of workers and earned average rates of 88.6 cents and 88.8 cents an hour, respectively. Average earnings of more than $1.00 an hour were paid only to workers in some of the maintenance occupations.

In each of the three regions for which wage data are shown, the lowest average hourly earnings were paid to watchmen. Similarly, in each of the three regions, the highest average rates were earned by class A workers in one of the maintenance occupations.

TABLE 7.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings of Workers in Selected Occupations in Secondary Smelters, by Region,*[1] *June 1943*

Occupation	Total			West		
	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings
Maintenance:						
Carpenters, class A	8	10	$1.170	4	4	$1.226
Carpenters, class B	15	19	.922	2	2	.975
Electricians, class A	8	12	1.142	1	1	(2)
Electricians, class B	13	49	1.035			
Machinists, class A	8	11	1.178	2	2	1.175
Machinists, class B	14	32	.920			
Maintenance men, general	20	74	.924	5	9	.961
Supervision:						
Working foremen, processing departments	29	74	.997	6	12	1.162
Processing:						
Briquetting-machine operators	35	161	.824	4	15	.886
Casters	27	175	.890	3	25	1.150
Furnace operators, blast and reverberatory	60	811	.886	11	117	.934
Furnace operators, other	35	287	.869	3	14	.870
Furnace operators' helpers	56	1,051	.799	6	53	.868
Grinding-machine operators, class B	9	68	.906	1	9	(2)
Grinding-machine operators, class C	8	21	.782	1	2	(2)
Potmen	41	450	.888	5	58	.868
Scrap-separator operators	22	145	.812			
Scrap sorters, hand, class B	37	182	.824	1	1	(2)
Scrap sorters, hand, class C	28	149	.749	2	4	.850
Inspection and testing:						
Samplers	22	55	.799	3	3	.867
Recording and control:						
Weighers	26	108	.852	3	6	.900
Material movement:						
Truck drivers	44	108	.886	7	15	.945
Truckers, hand	16	398	.769	3	32	.866
Custodial:						
Janitors	29	65	.748	3	4	.744
Watchmen	33	96	.638	2	3	.733
	Central			**East**		
Maintenance:						
Carpenters, class A	2	3	$1.197	2	3	$1.070
Carpenters, class B	9	10	.926	4	7	.902
Electricians, class A	2	2	1.263	5	9	1.120
Electricians, class B	9	39	1.048	4	10	.983
Machinists, class A	4	4	1.241	2	5	1.128
Machinists, class B	7	12	.980	7	20	.883
Maintenance men, general	12	58	.916	3	7	.944
Supervision:						
Working foremen, processing departments	13	34	.952	10	28	.980
Processing:						
Briquetting-machine operators	17	67	.786	14	79	.844
Casters	16	97	.821	8	53	.892
Furnace operators, blast and reverberatory	30	506	.882	19	188	.866
Furnace operators, other	14	100	.895	18	173	.855
Furnace operators' helpers	30	461	.790	20	537	.800
Grinding-machine operators, class B	5	46	.904	3	13	.849
Grinding-machine operators, class C	3	12	.794	4	7	.721
Potmen	19	296	.897	17	96	.874
Scrap-separator operators	13	92	.802	9	53	.832
Scrap sorters, hand, class B	22	125	.826	14	56	.817
Scrap sorters, hand, class C	13	59	.741	13	86	.751
Inspection and testing:						
Samplers	13	38	.801	6	14	.778
Recording and control:						
Weighers	13	59	.811	16	43	.902
Material movement:						
Truck drivers	18	42	.894	19	51	.861
Truckers, hand	11	319	.770	2	47	.696
Custodial:						
Janitors	16	44	.755	10	17	.730
Watchmen	17	41	.604	14	52	.659

[1] West region includes California and Washington; Central region includes Kansas, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Missouri, and Ohio; East region includes New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania.
[2] Too few workers and/or plants to warrant computation of an average.

The Western region, including California and Washington, employed only 391 of the workers studied in secondary smelters. Average earnings in this region varied from a low of 73.3 cents an hour for watchmen to a high of $1.226 for class A carpenters. Blast- and reverberatory-furnace operators accounted for nearly one-third of the workers in the region and earned an hourly average of 93.4. All processing workers except 25 casters, whose average hourly earnings amounted to $1.15, were in occupations with average earnings between 85 and 95 cents an hour.

The Central region, most important from the standpoint of employment and number of plants, accounted for more than half of the workers studied and included the six States of Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Michigan, Missouri and Kansas. Employees in this region had average earnings ranging from 60.4 cents for watchmen to $1.263 for class A electricians. Nearly one-fifth of the workers were employed as blast- and reverberatory-furnace operators and earned an average of 88.2 cents an hour. Furnace operators' helpers and hand truckers, next in order of numerical importance, had average earnings of 79 and 77 cents an hour, respectively.

The Eastern region consisted of 28 plants in New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, employing 1,654 of the workers included in the survey. Average earnings for all workers in the region ranged from 65.9 cents an hour for watchmen to $1.128 an hour for class A machinists. More than half of the workers were employed as furnace operators and furnace operators' helpers. Average hourly earnings for these three groups of workers amounted to 86.6, 85.5 and 80 cents an hour, respectively. Of the processing workers 93 percent were in occupations having average earnings between 80 and 90 cents an hour. Only two processing occupations, class C scrap sorters and class C grinding-machine operators, had hourly earnings outside of this 10-cent range; the averages for the workers engaged in these two occupations were 75.1 and 72.1 cents an hour, respectively.

Wage Rates in Selected Industries in Honolulu, October 1942

IN Honolulu, on October 31, 1942, the average hourly wage rate of 663 persons engaged in power-laundering operations was 39.3 cents, and of 115 workers in dry-cleaning and pressing shops, 42.6 cents. The median hourly wage for 1,000 workers in eating and drinking establishments was 54.6 cents, without meals or lodging.[1]

Occupational average wage rates for workers in the industries studied, ranging from 28.5 cents an hour for folders in laundries to $1.35 for bartenders in eating and drinking establishments, are given in the accompanying table.

In the laundry industry the prevailing regular operating hours for those in strictly laundering operations were 8 per day and 48 per week. Of the 663 workers on an hourly basis 73 percent were in this group. Overtime was paid for at the rate of time and a half.

[1] Data are from Hawaii, Department of Labor and Industrial Relations, Bureau of Research and Statistics, Bulletins No. 10 (Prevailing Wage Rates in Power Laundries), No. 11 (Prevailing Wage Rates in Dry Cleaning and Pressing Shops), and No. 12 (Prevailing Wage Rates in Honolulu Eating and Drinking Establishments).

Average Hourly Wage Rates in Honolulu, October 31, 1942, by Industry and Occupation

Industry and occupation	Number	Average hourly wage
Laundries		
All occupations	663	Cents 39.3
Folders	12	28.5
Shakers and stackers	22	31.1
Finishers	99	33.8
Manglers	63	35.4
Wrappers and bundlers	8	36.0
Markers and sorters	103	36.1
Seamstresses	19	37.8
Pressers and ironers	180	37.9
Checkers	79	40.1
Starchers	4	42.5
Spotters	3	50.0
Wringers	3	55.0
Extractor and tumbler men	11	61.4
Washers	57	61.7
Dry-cleaning and pressing establishments		
All occupations	115	42.6
Markers	4	29.0
Dry cleaners and spotters	4	32.8
Checkers	11	35.6
Pressers and ironers, hand	49	37.0
Seamstresses	3	40.0
Washers	17	49.7
Steam pressers	23	53.0
Drivers	4	66.5
Eating and drinking establishments		
All occupations	1,000	Cents (1)
Bakers	1	65.0
Bar maids and boys	50	62.2
Bartenders	46	135.1
Bouncers	37	116.4
Bus boys	2	45.0
Car hops	4	25.0
Cashiers and assistants	17	56.4
Cook helpers and assistants	22	66.3
Cooks and chefs	67	72.3
Counter boys and girls	42	57.3
Dishwashers and helpers	75	45.0
Floor women	6	74.2
Fountain boys and girls	23	41.8
Hostesses	1	130.0
Janitors and helpers	15	51.6
Kitchen helpers	100	62.4
Noodle makers	1	83.0
Pantry boys	8	64.8
Porters	3	90.3
Sales girls	8	38.5
Sandwich makers	19	36.1
Waiters and waitresses	451	47.2
Yard boys	2	59.0

[1] No average given in report.

In the restaurant industry over 60 percent of the 1,000 workers covered had a 40 to 49 hour workweek, 49 percent having a 48-hour schedule. Four fountain employees and 1 cook were reported as working 70 hours per week, while the regular workweek of 110 employees, including 78 kitchen helpers, was 60 hours. A number of establishments which reported rates for October 31, 1942, later increased their wages from 4 to 17 cents an hour, according to information from the Wage and Hour Division of the Department of Labor and Industrial Relations of the Territory of Hawaii.

A 1943 amendment to the Wage and Hour Law of the Territory of Hawaii raised the hourly minimum wage rate in Oahu from 25 to 30 cents and on the Islands of Maui and Hawaii from 20 to 25 cents. These new rates became effective July 1, 1943, and meant an immediate increase to any worker being paid the previous minimum.

No legislative change was made in the maximum of 48 hours per week on straight time. However, the reducing of total blackout hours, the provision for restricted lighting after blackouts, and other changes in the potential working day will be reflected in the working hours of various employees in Hawaii.

Wage and Hour Regulation

Summary of Wage Orders Under Fair Labor Standards Act[1]

ALL of the approximately 21 million employees in the continental United States who are subject to the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 will soon have a minimum hourly wage of at least 40 cents—nearly 2 years before October 1945, the statutory date fixed under the terms of the law. This legislation, covering employees engaged in interstate commerce or the production of goods for interstate commerce, also provides that a 40-cent minimum might be required before October 1945 by the process of industry-committee recommendations and wage orders. The industry-committee work was completed for the mainland on October 22, 1943, when the sixty-ninth and last industry committee met and recommended approval of a 40-cent hourly rate by the Administrator of the law.

Approximately 1,200,000 employees have had their wages increased by existing wage orders providing for a 40-cent minimum, and it is estimated that an additional 400,000 will be affected when wage orders for the remaining 12 industries go into effect.

The accompanying table lists the industries for which wage orders had been issued as of November 10, 1943, together with their effective dates. With three exceptions where rates lower than 40 cents have been fixed and are explained in footnotes, the rate established is 40 cents an hour.

Wage orders are pending for the following industries. In all cases a 40-cent minimum has been recommended.

Bakery, beverage, and miscellaneous food products
Chemical, petroleum and coal products, and allied manufacturing
Communication, utilities and miscellaneous transportation
Construction
Finance, insurance, real estate, motion picture, and miscellaneous industries
Fruit and vegetable packing and farm products assembling
Logging, lumber and timber and related products
Meat, poultry, and dairy products
Metal ore, coal, petroleum, and natural gas extraction
Pens and pencils manufacture
Stone, clay, glass and allied industries
Wholesaling, warehousing, and other distribution

In addition to the wage orders already approved in which minimum standards are applied to wages of workers in Puerto Rican industries, economic studies are in process preliminary to industry-committee action for that area and for the Virgin Islands.

[1] Data are from U. S. Department of Labor, Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions, Press release No. G18, Rev. 9/43, and unpublished data from the Division's Economics Branch.

Industries With Minimum Wage Rates Established Under Fair Labor Standards Act, in Continental United States as of November 10, 1943

Industry	Effective date	Industry	Effective date
Apparel manufacture:		Knitted outerwear	4-20-42
Men's and boys' clothing	7-15-40	Knitted and men's woven underwear and commercial knitting	11-24-41
Sportswear and other odd outerwear	7-15-40	Leather	9-16-40
Leather and sheep-lined garments	7-15-40	Luggage, leather goods, and women's handbags	7-27-42
Rainwear	7-15-40	Lumber and timber products [1]	11- 3-41
Cloaks, suits, and separate skirts	7-15-40	Mattress, bedding, and related products	9-20-43
Caps and cloth hats	7-15-40	Metal, plastics, machinery, instrument, and allied industries	9-13-43
Belts	7-15-40	Millinery	1-15-40
Button and buckle manufacture	10-19-42	Miscellaneous apparel	12-15-41
Candy and related products manufacture	3-29-43	Miscellaneous textile, leather, fur, straw, and related products	9-20-43
Canned fruits and vegetables and related products	10-18-43	Passenger motor carriers	1- 5-42
Carpet and rug	3-17-41	Portable lamps and shades	7- 1-41
Cigar industry:		Printing and publishing and allied graphic arts	6-14-43
Cigar manufacturing	8-10-42	Property motor carriers	3-16-42
Leaf processing [1]	8-10-42	Pulp and primary paper	9-16-40
Clay products [2]	9- 1-41	Railroad carriers	8-31-42
Converted paper products	2-15-43	Rubber products manufacture	7-28-41
Cooking and heating appliances manufacture	4-12-43	Seamless hosiery	2-15-43
Cottonseed and peanut crushing	8-16-43	Shoe manufacture and allied industries	11- 3-41
Drug, medicine, and toilet preparations	7- 7-41	Single pants, shirts, and allied garments	9-29-41
Embroideries	9-20-43	Sugar and related products	6-21-43
Enameled utensils	4-21-41	Textiles	4-20-42
Gloves and mittens	9-21-42	Tobacco	8-10-42
Grain products	3- 1-43	Vegetable fats and oils	8-16-43
Gray-iron jobbing foundries	11- 3-41	Women's apparel	9-29-41
Handkerchief manufacture	2-15-43	Wood furniture manufacture	11- 3-41
Hats	7- 1-40	Woolen industry	11-24-41
Hosiery (full-fashioned)	9-18-39		
Jewelry manufacture	11- 3-41		

[1] The rate established is 35 cents an hour; industry-committee recommendations increasing these rates to 40 cents have been placed before the Administrator.
[2] The rate established is 34 cents an hour; industry-committee recommendations increasing the rate to 40 cents have been placed before the Administrator.

Wage Increases in Mexico, September 1943 [1]

WAGE increases in Mexico ranging from 5 to 40 percent for agricultural workers, and from 5 to 50 percent for workers in general, were established in a decree by the President and Cabinet of Mexico on September 23, 1943, effective October 1, 1943 (which was amended by a decree of October 15, 1943, to meet certain objections). Increases in the wages and salaries of employees of the Federal Government and those of the Bureau of the Federal District and of the National Territories, ranging from 7.60 to 63.30 pesos per month, were provided by a decree of September 27, 1943, also to become effective October 1, 1943. These wage increases operate in connection with the minimum wage rates fixed in 1942, which vary from 0.75 peso per day in Chiapas to 5 pesos in the northern district of Lower California.

The wage increases established on September 23 do not apply to workers in the petroleum industry; instead, it was recommended that the wage scales included in the arbitral decision of December 18, 1937,[2] be made effective. This recommendation was accepted by the management of the Petróleos Mexicanos and the executive committee of the oil workers' union, Sindicato de Trabajadores Petroleros, also on September 23. The discounts fixed by the administrative council

[1] Data are from El Popular (México, D. F.), September 24, 1943, September 29, 1943, and October 16, 1943.
[2] The text of this arbitral decision was published in Revista del Trabajo (México, D. F.), January 1938.

of the petroleum industry, Consejo de Administración de Petróleos Mexicanos, in its assembly of July 21, 1938, and also those applied on the basis of the decision of November 28, 1940, were abrogated. Present daily wages up to 5.52 pesos are to be increased, moreover, by 10 percent, as an emergency measure. According to a Mexican estimate these increases will entail an annual expenditure of 14,000,000 pesos.

General Wage Increases

The new measures are to be effective throughout the Republic for all work, whether under Federal or local jurisdiction. All daily wages up to 10 pesos are to be increased by the percentages indicated in the accompanying table. The special increases fixed for rural workers are also shown.

Wage Increases for Mexican Workers Decreed September 23, 1943

Wage group	Percent of increase	Wage group	Percent of increase	Wage group	Percent of increase
Up to 1.00 peso	50.0	5.51 to 5.75 pesos	17.3	*Rural workers*	
1.01 to 1.25 pesos	49.1	5.76 to 6.00 pesos	16.4		
1.26 to 1.50 pesos	48.0	6.01 to 6.25 pesos	15.2	0.75 to 1.00 peso	40.00
1.51 to 1.75 pesos	46.5	6.26 to 6.50 pesos	14.2	1.01 to 1.25 pesos	35.00
1.76 to 2.00 pesos	45.0	6.51 to 6.75 pesos	13.2	1.26 to 1.50 pesos	30.00
2.01 to 2.25 pesos	44.5	6.76 to 7.00 pesos	12.5	1.51 to 1.75 pesos	25.00
2.26 to 2.50 pesos	43.2	7.01 to 7.25 pesos	11.9	1.76 to 2.00 pesos	20.00
2.51 to 2.75 pesos	41.7	7.26 to 7.50 pesos	11.3	2.01 to 2.25 pesos	18.00
2.76 to 3.00 pesos	39.0	7.51 to 7.75 pesos	10.7	2.26 to 2.50 pesos	15.00
3.01 to 3.25 pesos	36.3	7.76 to 8.00 pesos	9.9	2.51 to 2.75 pesos	12.00
3.26 to 3.50 pesos	33.0	8.01 to 8.25 pesos	9.2	2.76 to 3.00 pesos	10.00
3.51 to 3.75 pesos	30.6	8.26 to 8.50 pesos	8.7	3.01 to 3.25 pesos	8.00
3.76 to 4.00 pesos	28.4	8.51 to 8.75 pesos	8.0	3.26 to 3.50 pesos	6.00
4.01 to 4.25 pesos	26.2	8.76 to 9.00 pesos	7.0	3.51 to 3.75 pesos	5.75
4.26 to 4.50 pesos	24.6	9.01 to 9.25 pesos	5.9	3.76 to 4.00 pesos	5.50
4.51 to 4.75 pesos	23.1	9.26 to 9.50 psos	5.6	4.01 to 4.25 pesos	5.25
4.76 to 5.00 pesos	21.6	9.51 to 9.75 pescs	5.3	4.26 to 4.50 pesos	5.00
5.01 to 5.25 pesos	19.9	9.76 to 10.00 pesos	5.0		
5.26 to 5.50 pesos	18.4				

Wage rates resulting from these increases which do not end in 0 or 5 are to be increased to the next higher number ending in 0 or 5. The wage increases established by the decrees are to be applied to the wages which have not been increased since January 1, 1943, and to those which have been increased by an amount less than that granted by the decree. Wages which have been increased by amounts greater than those here established, however, are not to be reduced. In cases where the wage is calculated by piece work or other method, the rate per unit of work is to be increased by 18.5 percent; if part of the pay is by unit of time and part by unit of work, the varying scale of increases is to be applied to the former and the 18.5-percent increase to the latter. In no case shall the amount to be paid be less than the minimum wage plus the increase which the present decree provides.

The wage increases do not apply to domestic servants who habitually are engaged in cleaning, assistance, and other duties within a dwelling, to whom the employer furnishes food, but those persons who perform such duties in hotels, inns, hospitals, or other similar commercial establishments are to receive the increases specified. Persons who render personal services through an apprenticeship contract are excluded from the provisions of this law and their pay must be either cash

or food and clothing, or both, as specified in the Federal Labor Law (arts. 218 and 224, sec. II).

To calculate the emergency increases established by the present legislation, the cash wage per day or per unit of work or time, or some wage agreed upon, is to be taken as the basis of increase. Cash wages, whatever their amount at the date of issuance of the present law, plus the increases here specified are frozen and may not be modified while this law is in effect, unless the enterprise is financially able to increase them. The wage freeze is not to operate in cases in conflict at the date of publication of this law, but will apply to the wages established in settlement of such conflict.

The decree requires that, within 30 days from its publication, local administrative authorities must close retail liquor establishments and gambling houses within a radius of 4 kilometers from the working places situated outside of towns. If the local authorities have not complied with this provision within the period specified, the Federal Executive, through the Secretary of Labor and Social Welfare is to proceed to close those establishments, and the local and Federal authorities are required to render necessary aid.

For the enforcement of the decrees, tripartite commissions are provided for, representing the Government, the workers, and the employers.

Fines for violations range from 500 to 5,000 pesos for the first offense and up to 50,000 pesos for the second. In extreme cases the establishment may even be closed down temporarily or permanently. The fines collected are to be used for purposes of education, industrial safety and hygiene, and recreational and cultural activities for the workers.

Wage Increases for Government Employees

The pay increases provided by the decree of September 27, 1943, for salaried employees and wage earners employed by the Federal Government, the Bureau of the Federal District, and the National Territories, range from 7.60 pesos (50-percent increase) to 63.30 pesos (5-percent increase) per month, according to salary class. From October 1 to December 31, 1943, the increases are to be considered supplementary pay and not subject to any discounts except income tax. For the payment of various contributions, the basis is to be the original pay without the increases.

Fixing of Minimum Wages Authorized in Paraguay, 1943[1]

THE fixing of adequate minimum wages for all workers in Paraguay was provided for by decree law No. 620 of October 2, 1943. This provision applies to the Government, to municipalities, and to public-service corporations, as well as to all private enterprises. Regulations are to be promulgated concerning the graduated scale of wages to be paid in accordance with this legislation.

All workers regardless of sex or nationality are to be entitled to a minimum wage sufficient to satisfy their normal requirements for food, housing, clothing, health, transportation, culture, and honest recreation. The determination of this wage shall take into account

[1] Data are from report of Wesley Frost, U. S. Ambassador at Asunción, Paraguay.

the cost of living of the worker's family with respect to time and place, and, when necessary, the nature of the work performed. The minimum wage is to be the minimum pay for a worker 18 years of age per legal workday. For the application of this legislation, the territory of the Republic is to be divided into zones. In general, the minimum pay shall be fixed for each zone, but if necessary, special provisions may be made for industries within the zone, or the zones may be divided for more effective application of the law.

The minimum wage throughout the Republic is to be established by the National Labor Bureau after hearing representatives of interested workers and employers. The resolution by which the minimum pay is tentatively established shall be published in one of the principal daily newspapers of the capital for 30 days, during which the National Labor Bureau shall receive the comments of interested persons. At the end of this period the National Labor Bureau is to have 5 days for reconsidering the rates fixed, and any change must be made within 30 days from the date when reconsideration was requested.

The rate fixed may be reduced when an employer supplies food, lodging, etc. Lower wages may be established for apprentices, or for persons of limited physical capacity, or for mental defectives, the latter two classifications being determined by medical examination. The minimum wage may be increased up to 50 percent for work determined to be unhealthful. Minimum wages for persons engaged on piece work and in home industries shall be so fixed as to assure the worker remuneration equivalent to that paid for such work at the time rate. The application of the minimum-wage schedules does not authorize in any case a reduction in wages now being paid. The minimum wage may not be attached except in cases involving the provision of food.

Wages fixed in accordance with this decree law shall remain in force for 2 years. This period shall automatically be extended for an equivalent period, provided its modification is not requested by either workers or employers. The minimum wage can be modified, however, during its period of effectiveness if it can be proved that the economic situation of the region or of the industry has been seriously affected, and that the cost of living for the worker's family has changed by not less than 20 percent.

Any existing contract which establishes a wage lower than the minimum fixed shall be null and void. Workers who have been paid less than the minimum wage have the right to demand an increase. The National Labor Bureau shall fix a period of time, not exceeding 30 days, for the payment of any wage difference. Action requiring payment "will become null within 1 year of the payment of the salary which caused the claim." Fines are prescribed for all infractions of the conditions of this legislation, to be doubled in case of further infractions.

Cost of Living and Retail Prices

Cost of Living in Large Cities, October 1943

RETAIL prices as measured by the Bureau of Labor Statistics cost-of-living index for large cities rose 0.4 percent from mid-September to mid-October, largely as a result of increases in the price of eggs, clothing, and miscellaneous goods and services. An increase of 0.6 percent in food prices during the month was due largely to a 7-percent seasonal rise for eggs. Current OPA regulations provide for lower egg prices, beginning November 8, with continuing decreases until early in March. In the aggregate, the cost of all other foods was unchanged between September 14 and October 19. There were further advances in prices for some housefurnishings. In New York and Seattle, there were adjustments to higher ceiling prices for coal.

The October increase brought the rise in retail prices in the 2-month period, August 15 to October 15, to 0.8 percent, as compared with a drop of 1.4 percent from the middle of May to the middle of August. On October 15, the index of living costs stood at 124.4, as compared with 100 in the average for the years, 1935–39; this was 0.6 percent below the level of May 15, 1943, before prices of butter and meat were lowered by the subsidy. The index in October 1943 was 5.6 percent higher than that of September 1942, 7.2 percent higher than that of May 1942, and 23.4 percent above the level of January 1941 (the base date of the "Little Steel" formula).

There was a considerable variation in the changes in different cities during the month. Total living costs in Birmingham declined 0.2 percent and in San Francisco rose 1 percent. The changes in food costs ranged from a decrease of 2.6 percent in Memphis to an increase of 1.8 percent in San Francisco. Total clothing costs were unchanged in Detroit and Philadelphia, but rose 1.2 percent in San Francisco. The index for miscellaneous goods and services showed no change in four cities, but an advance of 1.3 percent in Kansas City.

Prices of meats and fish rose by one-half of 1 percent, as fresh and frozen fish prices increased more than 4 percent and beef edged up slightly. Increased marketing of hogs caused a slight decrease in the prices of all the pork cuts except salt pork. A fractional decline was reported for roasting chickens.

Potatoes increased in price in 21 of the 56 cities, resulting in a small increase in the general average and reversing the usual seasonal trend. Prices of cabbage, onions, spinach, and sweetpotatoes followed the usual patterns, with decreases ranging from 6.1 percent for cabbage to 19.2 percent for spinach. Carrots rose more than usual at this time of year (6.7 percent), while fresh apples declined by 0.9 percent. The supply of oranges in retail markets was smaller in October than in September, but the average price remained unchanged during the month.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Cost of Living in Large Cities on October 15, 1943, and Earlier Dates*

Date	Indexes [1] (1935–39=100) of cost of—						
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
1939: August 15	98.6	93.5	100.3	104.3	97.5	100.6	100.4
1941: January 15	100.8	97.8	100.7	105.0	100.8	100.1	101.9
1942: May 15	116.0	121.6	126.2	109.9	104.9	122.2	110.9
September 15	117.8	126.6	125.8	108.0	106.2	123.6	111.4
October 15	119.0	129.6	125.9	108.0	106.2	123.6	111.8
1943: September 15	123.9	137.4	132.5	108.0	107.7	126.3	117.0
October 15	124.4	138.2	133.0	(2)	107.9	126.5	117.6

[1] Based on changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities.
[2] Rents are surveyed at quarterly intervals: Mar. 15, June 15, Sept. 15, and Dec. 15.

TABLE 2.—*Percent of Change [1] in Cost of Living in Large Cities, in Specified Periods*

Date	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent [2]	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Sept. 15, 1943, to Oct. 15, 1943	+0.4	+0.6	+0.4	(2)	+0.2	+0.2	+0.5
Oct. 15, 1942, to Oct. 15, 1943	+4.5	+6.6	+5.6	0	+1.6	+2.3	+5.2
Sept. 15, 1942, to Oct. 15, 1943	+5.6	+9.2	+5.7	0	+1.6	+2.3	+5.6
May 15, 1942, to Oct. 15, 1943	+7.2	+13.7	+5.4	−1.7	+2.9	+3.5	+6.0
Jan. 15, 1941, to Oct. 15, 1943	+23.4	+41.3	+32.1	+2.9	+7.0	+26.4	+15.4
Aug. 15, 1939, to Oct. 15, 1943	+26.2	+47.8	+32.6	+3.5	+10.7	+25.7	+17.1

[1] Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities.
[2] Changes through Sept. 15, 1943.
[3] Rents are surveyed at quarterly intervals: Mar. 15, June 15, Sept. 15, and Dec. 15.

TABLE 3.—*Percent of Change in Cost of Living in Large Cities in Specified Periods, by City, Since August 1939, January 1941, and Other Specified Periods* [1]

City	Oct. 15, 1942, to Oct. 15, 1943	Aug. 15, 1939, to Oct. 15, 1943	Jan. 1, 1941, to Oct. 15, 1943	May 15, 1942, to Oct. 15, 1943	Sept. 15, 1942, to Oct. 15, 1943
Average: United States	+4.5	+26.2	+23.4	+7.2	+5.6
New England: Boston	+3.1	+25.1	+22.6	+7.1	+4.6
Middle Atlantic:					
Buffalo	+3.4	+28.0	+23.7	+4.6	+4.6
New York	+6.0	+25.7	+23.2	+9.8	+7.0
Philadelphia	+5.0	+26.4	+24.6	+7.8	+5.7
Pittsburgh	+5.1	+26.8	+23.3	+7.8	+6.2
East North Central:					
Chicago	+4.1	+25.4	+22.3	+6.3	+5.5
Cincinnati	+3.9	+27.2	+24.3	+6.8	+4.9
Cleveland	+5.8	+28.4	+25.9	+8.1	+7.4
Detroit	+4.2	+26.8	+23.7	+5.1	+5.5
West North Central:					
Kansas City	+4.6	+23.5	+23.8	+6.7	+6.2
Minneapolis	+3.1	+22.1	+19.5	+5.0	+4.2
St. Louis	+4.0	+25.0	+21.4	+6.1	+5.1
South Atlantic:					
Baltimore	+5.2	+28.4	+25.8	+7.2	+5.8
Savannah	+7.1	+33.3	+30.6	+9.5	+8.4
Washington, D. C.	+5.5	+26.0	+24.3	+8.3	+6.1
East South Central: Birmingham	+6.2	+29.2	+25.3	+7.2	+7.2
West South Central: Houston	+3.8	+22.4	+20.9	+6.1	+4.5
Mountain: Denver	+3.5	+23.6	+21.9	+5.4	+4.0
Pacific:					
Los Angeles	+2.9	+25.6	+23.1	+6.9	+3.7
San Francisco	+4.2	+27.7	+24.6	+7.8	+4.9
Seattle	+3.4	+27.8	+25.6	+5.8	+4.5

[1] Based on indexes of cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Cost of Living in Large Cities, October 15, 1943, by Groups of Items and City*

City	Indexes [1] (1935-39=100.0) of cost of—					
	All items	Food	Clothing	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average: Large cities	[2] 124.4	[3] 138.2	[4] 133.0	[3] 107.9	[4] 126.5	[4] 117.6
New England: Boston	121.5	133.1	129.5	118.4	121.6	114.4
Middle Atlantic:						
Buffalo	126.1	138.5	132.4	104.8	126.7	122.3
New York	124.4	138.7	136.4	111.8	120.6	117.4
Philadelphia	123.6	137.1	131.4	105.8	124.7	116.2
Pittsburgh	124.8	138.2	141.2	110.3	125.7	115.9
East North Central:						
Chicago	123.8	136.6	128.6	103.2	120.9	116.1
Cincinnati	123.8	136.1	135.6	103.8	131.3	117.5
Cleveland	128.4	143.9	136.3	113.5	126.8	117.7
Detroit	124.9	134.5	132.4	108.8	124.8	123.2
West North Central:						
Kansas City	121.8	132.6	130.8	108.1	120.8	118.7
Minneapolis	121.7	132.3	129.8	102.5	125.5	118.9
St. Louis	122.6	139.1	133.3	106.2	117.3	112.9
South Atlantic:						
Baltimore	126.7	147.0	132.6	106.8	130.5	114.9
Savannah	132.4	152.2	134.5	113.5	121.8	123.8
Washington, D. C.	124.2	140.2	141.2	106.6	132.2	121.4
East South Central: Birmingham	127.3	141.8	133.0	102.4	121.8	117.6
West South Central: Houston	123.3	138.4	134.5	89.2	123.2	118.6
Mountain: Denver	121.9	135.3	126.0	101.3	122.0	116.5
Pacific:						
Los Angeles	126.2	143.3	134.0	94.2	119.1	120.0
San Francisco	126.8	142.4	131.6	92.1	118.9	124.6
Seattle	128.2	142.8	133.5	102.7	122.2	127.2

[1] Based on cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities.
[2] Rents are surveyed at quarterly intervals: Mar. 15, June 15, Sept. 15, and Dec. 15.
[3] Based on prices for 56 cities, collected on the Tuesday nearest the fifteenth of the month.
[4] Based on data for 21 cities.
[5] Based on data for 34 cities.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Cost of Living [1] in Large Cities, 1935 to October 1943*

Year	Indexes [1] (1935-39=100) of cost of—						
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent [2]	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
1935	98.1	100.4	96.8	94.2	100.7	94.8	98.1
1936	99.1	101.3	97.6	96.4	100.2	96.3	98.7
1937	102.7	105.3	102.8	100.9	100.2	104.3	101.0
1938	100.8	97.8	102.2	104.1	99.9	103.3	101.5
1939	99.4	95.2	100.5	104.3	99.0	101.3	100.7
1940	100.2	96.6	101.7	104.6	99.7	100.5	101.1
1941	105.2	105.5	106.3	106.2	102.2	107.3	104.0
1942	116.5	123.9	124.2	108.5	105.4	122.2	110.9
1943:							
Jan. 15	120.7	133.0	126.0	108.0	107.3	123.8	113.2
Feb. 15	121.0	133.6	126.2	108.0	107.2	124.1	113.6
Mar. 15	122.8	137.4	127.6	108.0	107.4	124.5	114.5
Apr. 15	124.1	140.6	127.9	108.0	107.5	124.8	114.9
May 15	125.1	143.0	127.9	108.0	107.6	125.1	115.3
June 15	124.8	141.9	127.9	108.0	107.7	125.4	115.7
July 15	123.9	139.0	129.1	108.0	107.6	125.6	116.1
Aug. 15	123.4	137.2	129.6	108.0	107.7	125.9	116.5
Sept. 15	123.9	137.4	132.5	108.0	107.7	126.3	117.0
Oct. 15	124.4	138.2	133.0	(3)	107.9	126.5	117.6

[1] Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities.
[2] Rents collected at quarterly dates—Mar. 15, June 15, Sept. 15, and Dec. 15.

Higher retail prices for ready-to-wear articles allowed under the "cost plus margin" regulations were reflected in higher clothing costs for October. Almost all the types of clothing which are priced for the index were higher.

Costs of miscellaneous goods and services rose 0.5 percent from September 15 to October 15. Increases were reported in medical services, such as charges for hospital care, obstetrical services, and prescriptions for medicine. Laundry prices and motion-picture admissions continued to advance.

Retail Prices of Food in October 1943

PERCENTAGE increases in retail food costs on October 19, compared with September 1943, September and October 1942, January 1941, and August 1939, are presented in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Percent of Change in Retail Costs of Food in 56 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *in Specified Periods, by Commodity Groups*

Commodity group	Sept. 14, 1943, to Oct. 19, 1943	Oct. 13, 1942, to Oct. 19, 1943	Sept. 15, 1942, to Oct. 19, 1943	Jan. 14, 1941, to Oct. 19, 1943	Aug. 15, 1939, to Oct. 19, 1943
All foods	+0.6	+6.6	+9.2	+41.3	+47.8
Cereals and bakery products	+.1	+2.5	+2.8	+14.1	+16.0
Meats	+.5	−.5	0	+29.2	+36.5
Beef and veal	+.8	−5.2	−4.8	+9.6	+20.4
Pork	−.4	−8.8	−8.5	+31.8	+29.0
Lamb	0	+1.4	+.9	+36.7	+36.5
Chickens	−.3	+10.5	+9.9	+51.2	+55.4
Fish, fresh and canned	+3.8	+25.3	+28.7	+82.4	+117.4
Dairy products	0	+1.8	+4.5	+27.0	+43.4
Eggs	+7.1	+15.4	+22.5	+95.2	+109.6
Fruits and vegetables	−.4	+21.4	+28.3	+78.3	+80.1
Fresh	−.5	+25.6	+34.2	+87.3	+88.5
Canned	0	+4.0	+5.0	+42.2	+41.9
Dried	+1.2	+7.7	+12.6	+62.1	+78.8
Beverages	0	+.9	+1.1	+37.7	+31.9
Fats and oils	0	+4.4	+4.8	+57.5	+49.7
Sugar and sweets	0	−.1	−.2	+33.1	+32.6

[1] The number of cities included in the index was changed from 51 to 56 in March 1943, with the necessary adjustments for maintaining comparability. At the same time the number of foods in the index was increased from 54 to 61.

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 56*[1] *Large Cities Combined,*[2] *by Commodity Groups, on Specified Dates*

[1935–39=100]

Commodity group	1943		1942		1941	1939
	Oct. 19[3]	Sept. 14	Oct. 13	Sept. 15	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
All foods	138.2	137.4	129.6	126.6	97.8	93.5
Cereals and bakery products	108.3	108.2	105.7	105.4	94.9	93.4
Meats	130.6	129.9	131.2	130.6	101.1	95.7
Beef and veal	119.9	118.9	126.5	126.0	109.4	99.6
Pork	113.5	114.0	124.4	124.0	86.1	88.0
Lamb	134.9	134.9	133.0	133.7	98.7	98.8
Chickens	147.0	147.5	133.0	133.7	97.2	94.6
Fish, fresh and canned	216.5	208.5	172.8	168.2	118.7	99.6
Dairy products	133.5	[4] 133.5	131.2	127.7	105.1	93.1
Eggs	190.1	177.5	164.7	155.2	97.4	90.7
Fruits and vegetables	166.4	167.0	137.1	129.7	93.3	92.4
Fresh	174.9	175.8	139.3	130.3	93.4	92.8
Canned	130.0	130.0	125.0	123.8	91.4	91.6
Dried	161.5	[4] 159.6	149.9	143.4	99.6	90.3
Beverages	125.2	[4] 125.2	124.1	123.8	90.9	94.9
Fats and oils	126.5	126.5	121.2	120.7	80.3	84.5
Sugar and sweets	126.8	126.8	126.9	127.0	95.3	95.6

[1] Indexes based on 51 cities combined, prior to March 1943.
[2] Aggregate costs of 61 foods (54 foods prior to March 1943) in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined with the use of population weights.
[3] Preliminary.
[4] Revised.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Cities*[1] *on Specified Dates*

[1935-39=100]

City	1943		1942	1941
	Oct. 19[2]	Sept. 14	Oct. 13	Jan. 14
United States	138.2	137.4	129.6	97.8
New England:				
Boston	133.1	131.0	128.5	95.2
Bridgeport	137.1	136.0	128.6	96.5
Fall River	135.2	133.4	128.3	97.5
Manchester	134.5	133.9	128.8	96.6
New Haven	138.6	136.6	128.6	95.7
Portland, Maine	134.3	132.7	128.5	95.3
Providence	136.9	135.5	128.9	96.3
Middle Atlantic:				
Buffalo	138.5	137.3	131.8	100.2
Newark	140.8	139.6	130.3	98.8
New York	138.7	138.4	128.0	99.5
Philadelphia	137.1	135.2	125.8	95.0
Pittsburgh	138.2	137.4	129.4	98.0
Rochester	133.1	132.1	128.2	99.9
Scranton	138.7	137.2	129.0	97.5
East North Central:				
Chicago	136.6	137.0	128.9	98.2
Cincinnati	136.1	136.2	130.1	96.5
Cleveland	143.9	143.9	131.8	99.2
Columbus, Ohio	131.7	130.9	122.7	93.4
Detroit	134.5	133.6	128.2	97.0
Indianapolis	135.4	134.6	129.2	98.2
Milwaukee	135.4	133.6	125.2	95.9
Peoria	141.3	140.6	135.2	99.0
Springfield, Ill	141.6	141.6	133.1	96.2
West North Central:				
Cedar Rapids[3]	138.0	136.1	123.1	95.9
Kansas City	132.6	132.6	124.0	92.4
Minneapolis	132.3	130.4	126.6	99.0
Omaha	132.5	131.6	127.1	97.9
St. Louis	139.1	139.1	129.9	99.2
St. Paul	130.5	128.7	125.8	98.6
Wichita[3]	145.8	146.8	136.3	97.2
South Atlantic:				
Atlanta	140.3	139.9	129.0	94.3
Baltimore	147.0	145.3	133.8	97.9
Charleston, S. C.	137.1	136.4	127.7	95.9
Jacksonville	146.8	150.0	137.7	98.8
Norfolk[4]	148.3	149.7	134.0	95.8
Richmond	137.1	136.7	128.2	93.7
Savannah	152.2	152.5	137.1	100.5
Washington, D. C.	140.2	138.5	129.5	97.7
Winston-Salem[3]	139.4	138.6	122.5	93.7
East South Central:				
Birmingham	141.8	142.9	128.1	96.0
Jackson[3]	147.5	148.7	143.7	105.3
Knoxville[3]	157.5	157.9	134.9	97.1
Louisville	135.0	134.9	126.9	95.5
Memphis	144.4	148.2	132.6	94.2
Mobile	147.5	147.9	136.8	97.9
West South Central:				
Dallas	137.1	134.8	126.1	92.6
Houston	138.4	138.7	132.9	102.6
Little Rock	133.4	135.0	130.5	95.6
New Orleans	152.1	151.7	141.4	101.9
Mountain:				
Butte	136.5	136.0	129.5	98.7
Denver	135.3	134.8	128.4	94.8
Salt Lake City	140.5	138.6	134.0	97.5
Pacific:				
Los Angeles	143.3	141.8	140.0	101.8
Portland, Oreg.	144.6	144.8	142.2	101.7
San Francisco	142.4	139.9	134.6	99.6
Seattle	142.8	142.4	139.6	101.0

[1] Aggregate costs of 61 foods (54 foods prior to March 1943) in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights. Primary use is for time-to-time comparisons rather than place-to-place comparisons.

[2] Preliminary.

[3] Indexes based on June 1940=100.

[4] Includes Portsmouth and Newport News.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 56 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *1913 to October 1943*

[1935-39=100]

Year	All-foods index	Year	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index
1913	79.9	1930	126.0	*1942*		*1943*	
1914	81.8	1931	103.9	January	116.2	January	133.0
1915	80.9	1932	86.5	February	116.8	February	133.6
1916	90.8	1933	84.1	March	118.6	March	137.4
1917	116.9	1934	93.7	April	119.6	April	140.6
1918	134.4	1935	100.4	May	121.6	May	143.0
1919	149.8	1936	101.3	June	123.2	June	141.9
1920	168.8	1937	105.3	July	124.6	July	139.0
1921	128.3	1938	97.8	August	126.1	August	137.2
1922	119.9	1939	95.2	September	126.6	September	137.4
1927	132.3	1940	96.6	October	129.6	October	138.2
1928	130.8	1941	105.5	November	131.1		
1929	132.5	1942	123.9	December	132.7		

[1] Indexes based on 51 cities combined prior to March 1943.

Electricity and Gas: Price Changes Between June and September 1943

Prices of Electricity

CHANGES in prices of electricity to domestic consumers between June and September 1943, occurred in 4 of the 51 reporting cities. In New York City increases of about five-tenths of 1 percent in each of the five boroughs in September were due to adjustments to cover higher fuel costs. Atlanta, Mobile and Los Angeles reported rate reductions. Atlanta discontinued the "objective rate" plan, and the "inducement" or lowest rates which became available to all consumers provided decreases ranging from 6.8 percent for 250 kilowatt-hours to 15.9 percent for 25 kilowatt-hours for those formerly billed under the immediate rate. In Los Angeles reductions were greatest for the use of less than 35 kilowatt-hours per month. The decreases ranged from 2.4 percent for 250 kilowatt-hours to 6.4 percent for 25 kilowatt-hours. In Mobile lower rates, which were applicable only to the use of electricity in excess of 200 kilowatt-hours per month, resulted in a decrease of about 2 percent for 250 kilowatt-hours.

Prices of Gas

Seven of the 50 cities included in the regular quarterly survey reported changes in costs of gas to domestic consumers between June and September 1943. These included rate changes in 2 cities, changes in costs of fuel used for generating the gas in 4 cities, and in 1 city there was an increase in the heating value of the gas served. These cities are listed below by kinds of gas.

	Manufactured gas	*Natural gas*	*Mixed manufactured and natural gas*
Rate changes		Houston	Minneapolis
Adjustments for fuel costs	Boston Fall River Manchester Portland, Maine		
Changes in heating value of gas			New Orleans

Changes in prices of fuels used in generating manufactured gas in September 1943, as compared with the preceding June, increased costs of gas in Boston by approximately half of 1 percent and in Fall River by about 2.5 percent, and decreased costs about a tenth of 1 percent in Manchester and 1.5 percent in Portland, Maine. An increase in the heating value of the natural gas served in New Orleans resulted in a decrease of about 1 percent in the cost of gas. A temporary rate reduction of one of the companies serving Houston lowered the cost of natural gas in September by from 9.4 percent for 10.6 therms to 13.5 percent for 40.6 therms for a majority of the domestic consumers in that city, while lower rates for mixed manufactured and natural gas in Minneapolis provided decreases ranging from 5.0 percent for 10.6 therms to 10.4 percent for 40.6 therms.

Living Costs in Fluorspar-Mining Area of Illinois and Kentucky[1]

Summary

THE Bureau of Labor Statistics recently conducted a study of living costs in the fluorspar-mining area of southern Illinois and northwestern Kentucky. Three communities in Illinois and seven in Kentucky were surveyed at the request of the National War Labor Board, and the data obtained were used by the Board in formulating a program of wage stabilization for the fluorspar area. The study revealed that in communities covered, the estimated cost of a "maintenance" budget for a manual worker's family of four persons was from 4 to 5 percent less than in St. Louis. The percent of increase in living costs from March 1941 to April 1943 was 20 percent in the flourspar area and 21.9 percent in St. Louis.

Background of Survey

Fluorspar is a crystalline, nonmetallic mineral used largely in the steel industry as a flux in open-hearth and electric furnaces. It acts as a catalytic agent in the removal of impurities in iron ore, increasing the quantity and improving the quality of the steel produced. In addition, fluorspar is used in the reduction of aluminum oxide to aluminum, the production of aviation gasoline, and in the manufacture of pottery. Last year the Illinois and Kentucky deposits contributed nearly nine-tenths of the total amount of fluorspar produced in the United States.

The fluorspar area, which extends through 2 counties in Illinois and 3 in Kentucky, is about 70 miles long and 30 miles wide and is roughly divided in half by the Ohio river. It is sparsely settled and, except for the work in the fluorspar mines, farming is the chief occupation. There are 5 mine operators employing over 100 workers and 22 employing between 10 and 100 workers. In addition, there are several hundred small-scale operations with fewer than 10 workers each. In many cases, farmers mine the deposits on their own land when not engaged in farming. From 2,500 to 3,000 persons are employed in the industry in Kentucky and Illinois.

The War Labor Board undertook to stabilize the wage structure of the industry, at the request of the Army and the War Production Board and other Government agencies seeking to increase production to meet wartime needs. Production lagged in the early part of 1943, because of wage difficulties resulting from the transition of the industry from a relatively small peacetime producer to one of major importance in the war economy. The organized workers are represented by District 50 of the United Mine Workers of America, but the majority of workers in the area are unorganized. Average weekly earnings were definitely below those prevailing in other mining and quarrying operations. In April 1943, according to the War Labor Board, weekly earnings in the fluorspar area averaged $29.49. In the same month, the Bureau of Labor Statistics reported average weekly earnings in

[1] Prepared by Emil D. Schell of the Bureau's Cost of Living Division and Anne M. Schmitz of the Retail Price Division.

other mining, ranging from $39.15 for iron mining to $45.41 for copper mining. These figures are not strictly comparable, since the Board's data for the fluorspar mines were compiled from the pay rolls of the larger operators who generally pay higher wage rates, whereas the Bureau's averages take account of both large- and small-scale operations.

On July 2, the War Labor Board issued an order establishing a new wage structure for the industry. Under the terms of the order, surface workers in Illinois are to receive rates ranging from 63 cents an hour for common labor to 93 cents an hour for flotation operators; and underground workers are to receive from 76 cents an hour for common labor to $1.05 for shift leaders. In the Kentucky mines the rates established are 10 cents lower in each wage bracket, maintaining the usual differential between the two States.[2]

Comparison of Living Costs With St. Louis

The study made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics shows that a "maintenance" budget for a manual worker's family of 4 persons costs from 4 to 5 percent less in the fluorspar-mining area than in St. Louis.

The maintenance budget was established by the Works Progress Administration for the purpose of comparing costs between cities. That budget presents a list of goods and services which can be used to measure the cost of approximately the same level of living in different communities, without regard to the variations resulting from differences in income, habits, and customs. It is important to note that the budget does not "approach the content of what may be considered a satisfactory standard of living."[3] Although the list of goods and services provided by the budget exceeds that of minimum or subsistence levels, it is below the plane of living which the family of a skilled worker may expect to obtain. Needs of a moderately active man, who wears overalls at work, his wife, a boy aged 13, and a girl aged 8 were considered by the Works Progress Administration in defining the budget. The budget provides for a 4- or 5-room house or apartment with gas and electricity, an indoor bath and toilet, and ice for refrigeration, but no automobile. It covers a daily newspaper and a visit to the movies once a week. It does not provide for the employment of household help.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Cost of Maintenance Budget for 4-Person Manual Worker's Family in St. Louis and in Fluorspar-Mining Area, April 15, 1943*

Group	St. Louis, Mo.	Fluorspar-mining area	
		Estimated cost	Index (St. Louis=100)
All items	$1,699.10	$1,623.84	95.6
Food	686.46	648.02	94.4
Clothing	204.17	241.65	118.4
Rent	296.38	292.82	98.8
Fuel, electricity, and ice	114.24	108.46	94.9
Housefurnishings	43.14	41.00	95.0
Miscellaneous	354.71	291.89	82.3

[2] Referee's Report to the War Labor Board, by Dr. Waldo E. Fisher.
[3] Intercity Differences in Living Costs, 59 Cities, March 1935, by Margaret Loomis Stecker, Works Progress Administration, Washington, D. C.

Table 1 presents the estimated cost of the maintenance budget in the fluorspar area and in St. Louis as of April 15, 1943. It is not possible to make an exact comparison, since the community facilities in the fluorspar area are such that the level of living of the majority of families falls below the maintenance level available in St. Louis. This is notably the case in connection with housing and medical care.

The communities surveyed in the mining area were Elizabethtown, Rosiclair, and Cave-in-Rock in Illinois, and Crayne, Crider, Fredonia, Marion, Mexico, Motts, and Salem in Kentucky.

Food habits of families living in smaller communities of the Midwest, such as those in the fluorspar area, differ from those of families in larger urban centers, such as St. Louis. In the smaller towns there is a larger amount of home canning and baking and there are also larger purchases of certain foods, such as cornmeal. The Bureau of Labor Statistics, therefore, priced two food budgets in both areas. The cost of the St. Louis food budget was 4 percent lower in the mining area than in St. Louis. On the basis of the budget of Midwest small-town families, food costs in the mining area were 7.3 percent lower than in St. Louis. A close approximation of the difference in food costs between the two areas is provided by an average of these two figures, which indicates that food costs are about 5½ percent less in fluorspar area than in St. Louis.

Prices of meats, milk, and cheese were lower in the fluorspar area, while in St. Louis the prices of fats and oils and sugar were lower. The Bureau's agents reported that for some commodities, particularly flour and cornmeal, prices were lower in the mining areas because the miners' families prefer to buy in larger quantities, thus decreasing the unit cost. Prices of some of the more important foods are presented in table 2 for the two regions.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of Specified Articles of Food in St. Louis and Fluorspar Area, April 15, 1943*

Commodity	Unit	Price (in cents)	
		St. Louis	Fluorspar area
Flour, wheat	Pound	6.2	5.0
Bread, white	Pound	9.3	9.5
Corn flakes	8-ounce package	6.9	7.2
Pork chops	Pound	40.9	39.7
Bacon, sliced	Pound	43.7	40.0
Butter	Pound	55.8	57.7
Milk, fresh	Quart	15.5	14.2
Potatoes	Pound	5.3	4.9
Lard	Pound	18.8	19.8
Sugar	Pound	6.9	7.3

Average rental bills in the fluorspar area were very low as compared with those in St. Louis, but the difference was due largely to the lack of many facilities available to families in the larger city. When allowance was made for services ordinarily provided for families in urban communities, and their value included in the rental bill, housing costs in the fluorspar area were about 1.2 percent lower than in St. Louis.

Single, detached houses formed the predominant type of dwelling unit in the mining area, the number of rooms ranging from 2 to 4. Most of the structures were wooden frame buildings, constructed prior to 1900, with no garage. Rental dwellings appeared to be badly in need

of repair. Few of the homes were provided with clothes-closet facilities; substitutes consisted of wardrobe cases or rows of hooks or nails behind doors. Ordinary conveniences were seldom provided, with the sole exception of electricity for lighting. Water was usually obtained from wells or cisterns. In Elizabethtown, these were filled by the city water department at a rate of $2.35 for 3,000 gallons; tenants not having serviced cisterns made use of outdoor hydrants, paying a fee for this privilege. Outdoor privies were usual, and in washing clothes, large iron kettles of boiling water in the back yard were generally used. Meals were prepared on kerosene or wood stoves.

Spardale, a Federal Public Housing Agency project, is about 3 miles from Rosiclair. Dwelling units were provided there for 150 families in 27 frame structures. Each unit had 5 rooms with individual hot-air furnaces, a shower, and a flush toilet. An icebox, cook stove, electrical lighting, and water were included in the rent. Occupancy in the housing project was restricted to miners. Rents ranged from $18.50 to $28.50, depending on the income level of the family. At the time of the survey, only 18 of the units were occupied. Additional dwelling units were available to miners in the region on a few company-owned properties.

Clothing costs to the miners' families were higher than the cost to St. Louis wage earners, because of the necessity for purchasing special work clothes for use in the mines. In making the comparison of clothing costs for the War Labor Board, the annual charge for such special equipment was included. Necessary articles were rubber boots, ranging in price from $3.75 to $5.00; safety-toed shoes, priced at $4.95; rubberized knee-length coat, $8.00; skull-guard hats made of plastic, between $3.00 and $3.85; safety glasses, $5.00; wide leather belts, $3.00; and horsehide gloves, 85 cents. There were also charges for carbide or electric lamps. Much of the wardrobe of the miners' families was purchased through mail-order houses, and mail-order prices, including charges for parcel-post delivery, were averaged with local prices in the computations.

Electricity rates and ice costs were higher in the Kentucky-Illinois district. Coal costs, however, were considerably lower for the miners' families, since the proximity of the coal mines makes it possible for them to have coal delivered directly from the mines at mine prices. The cooking fuel most frequently used by the families in the fluorspar area was kerosene, but coal and wood were also used, particularly in the fall and winter seasons. For the combined group of fuel, electricity, and ice, the prices averaged about 5 percent lower in the mining towns than in St. Louis at the maintenance level.

Displays of furniture and housefurnishings in the fluorspar area were quite limited, the furniture stores in most cases being in combination with undertaking establishments. Furniture was available at the nearby city of Evansville, Ill., but for most housefurnishings, such as sheets, towels, and pillowcases, the families in the area made their purchases directly from mail-order houses in Chicago. When the mail-order prices (including postage) were averaged with prices paid in local stores, the cost of furniture and housefurnishings in the fluorspar area was found to be about 5 percent less than average costs in the St. Louis stores.

Accident- and health-insurance costs were higher for miners than for other wage earners because of the greater occupational hazards.

General hospital care in the mining region was not so accessible as in more populous communities, and hospital costs were higher in the mining area because the distance to the hospitals involved greater transportation charges than in the urban areas. Other medical-care charges were lower, although there were few practitioners in the area. Prices of soap, tobacco, gasoline, and newspapers were higher in the mining area. Practically all other items in the group—including motion-picture admissions, dental and medical fees, and barber-service rates—were the same as or lower than usual charges in St. Louis. For the whole group of miscellaneous goods and services, the cost was considerably less (about 18 percent) in the fluorspar area.

Changes in Cost of Living in the Fluorspar Area

From March 15, 1941, to April 15, 1943, living costs in the fluorspar-mining towns increased 20 percent. The largest increase occurred in food costs which rose somewhat more than 37 percent in the 2 years. Clothing costs were 29 percent higher; fuel, electricity and ice, 8 percent; housefurnishings, almost 13 percent; and miscellaneous items, nearly 7 percent. Price changes in the fluorspar-mining towns were somewhat less than in St. Louis, where the cost of living rose 21.9 percent in the same period.

It is extraordinarily difficult to go into a community for the first time to secure prices for earlier dates, particularly over a period as long as 2 years. In St. Louis the Bureau has collected retail prices and rents regularly since 1917. In the Illinois-Kentucky area, however, the present study represents the first official survey of retail prices and rents. Old invoices and charge-account records of the storekeepers in the fluorspar area were of assistance in this connection and the task was also made somewhat easier because of the fact that prices from mail-order catalogues play an important part in the miners' purchases.

The following statement shows the percentage changes in living costs, by groups of items, between March 15, 1941, and April 15, 1943, in St. Louis, Mo., and in the fluorspar-mining area.

	Percent of change	
	St. Louis, Mo.	*Fluorspar-mining area*
All items	+21.9	+20.0
Food	+43.1	+37.4
Clothing	+25.0	+29.4
Rent	[1] +4.5	[1] +4.0
Fuel, electricity, and ice	+3.3	+8.2
Housefurnishings	+19.2	+12.8
Miscellaneous	+9.2	+6.8

[1] Percent of change from March 15, 1941, to March 15, 1943.

Wholesale Prices

Wholesale Prices in October 1943

CONTINUING the downward tendency which began in June, commodity prices in primary markets [1] dropped 0.1 percent during October. Weakening markets for livestock and poultry, for cotton, and for most fresh fruits and vegetables largely accounted for the decline. The recession brought the all-commodity index to 103.0 percent of the 1926 average, 1 percent below the peak reached in May of this year.

Quotations for farm products in primary markets averaged 0.7 percent lower in October than in September. Building materials, on the contrary, rose 0.2 percent largely as a result of Office of Price Administration action in allowing higher ceilings on several types of lumber and millwork. The textile products, chemicals and allied products, and miscellaneous commodities groups advanced 0.1 percent. Prices for hides and leather products, metals and metal products, and housefurnishing goods were unchanged during the month. A slight increase in prices for petroleum products did not affect the index for fuel and lighting materials. It remained steady at 81.0 percent of the 1926 average.

A decline of over 3 percent in quotations for livestock and poultry contributed in a large measure to the drop of 0.7 percent in average prices for farm products during October. Lower prices were reported for cattle, hogs, sheep, and live poultry in the Chicago market, for cotton, wool, alfalfa seed, and flaxseed, for tobacco, and for most fresh fruits and vegetables. Grains rose 2.3 percent as a result of substantial increases in prices for barley, oats, rye, and wheat. In addition, markets were stronger for hay and clover seed, and for fresh milk at Chicago.

Average prices for foods in primary markets edged slightly higher as a result of increases for dried peaches and apricots, canned peaches, oatmeal, flour, dressed poultry, and eggs. A few important foods, such as prunes, apples, onions, potatoes, and mutton, declined.

Industrial commodity markets continued relatively steady, with a slight upward tendency.

No changes were reported in prices for hides, skins, leather, and shoes. Higher prices for underwear were reported by some manufacturers.

A sharp advance in prices for natural gasoline at Oklahoma refineries was not reflected in the index for the fuel and lighting materials group.

[1] The Bureau of Labor Statistics wholesale price data for the most part represent prices prevailing in the "first commercial transaction." They are prices quoted in primary markets, at principal distribution points.

Prices for metals and metal products were firm. Average prices for lumber rose 0.3 percent and millwork advanced about 3 percent as a result of an upward adjustment in ceiling prices by the Office of Price Administration. Naval stores markets were up from 2 to 3 percent, while sand and gravel declined.

Chemicals declined fractionally because of a decrease in prices for phthalic anhydride. Quotations for fertilizer materials were up about 1 percent because of an advance of over 6 percent in potashes.

There were no changes reported in prices for furniture and house-furnishings during the month.

In the miscellaneous commodities group, Pennsylvania neutral oil advanced 4 percent. The paper and pulp markets were steady.

In October 1943, the price level for most agricultural commodities was considerably higher than it was a year ago. The farm products group index rose 12 percent over the year period, led by an increase of nearly 34 percent in grain markets. Foods were up 1.6 percent, largely because of an advance of over 17 percent in fruits and vegetables. Meats, on the contrary, were 8 percent lower than in October 1942.

Among the outstanding price movements in industrial commodity markets during the 12-month period October 1942 to October 1943, were increases of more than 28 percent for cattle feed and drugs and pharmaceuticals; about 7 percent for lumber and paper and pulp; and nearly 5 percent for coal, petroleum products, and fertilizer materials. Prices for a few commodities were lower than in October of last year. Plumbing and heating equipment declined 4 percent and cement dropped 0.6 percent.

Prices for nearly all commodities are far above their pre-war levels of August 1939. In the agricultural commodity field, farm products have risen 100 percent mainly because of increases of about 140 percent in the grain markets and over 90 percent for livestock and poultry. Average prices for foods in primary markets were 56 percent higher than in August 1939, with fruits and vegetables up 97 percent; dairy products, over 60 percent; meats, 44 percent; and cereal products, 31 percent. Outstanding price increases in industrial commodity markets from August 1939 to October 1943 were 151 percent for industrial fats and oils; 133 percent for cattle feed; 114 percent for drugs and pharmaceuticals; over 70 percent for cotton goods; nearly 60 percent for lumber; about 50 percent for woolen and worsted goods and hides and skins; 30 percent for clothing, paper and pulp, and rubber; and about 20 percent for shoes, leather, coal, paint and paint materials, fertilizer materials, furniture, and house-furnishings.

Average prices for raw materials in October were 68 percent higher than in August 1939, while semimanufactured articles and finished products advanced approximately 25 percent during this period.

Percentage comparisons of the October 1943 level of commodity prices in wholesale markets with September 1943, October 1942, and August 1939, with corresponding index numbers, are given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, October 1943, With Comparisons for September 1943, October 1942, and August 1939*

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	October 1943	September 1943	Percent of change	October 1942	Percent of change	August 1939	Percent of increase
All commodities	103.0	103.1	−0.1	100.0	+3.0	75.0	37.3
Farm products	122.2	123.1	−.7	109.0	+12.1	61.0	100.3
Grains	122.5	119.7	+2.3	91.5	+33.9	51.5	137.9
Livestock and poultry	126.1	130.2	−3.1	123.4	+2.2	66.0	91.1
Other farm products	118.9	118.8	+.1	104.4	+13.9	60.1	97.8
Foods	105.1	105.0	+.1	103.4	+1.6	67.2	56.4
Dairy products	109.1	108.9	+.2	109.2	−.1	67.9	60.7
Cereal products	94.7	94.4	+.3	89.3	+6.0	71.9	31.7
Fruits and vegetables	115.1	116.7	−1.4	98.2	+17.2	58.5	96.8
Meats	106.2	106.0	+.2	115.5	−8.1	73.7	44.1
Other foods	99.6	99.0	+.6	95.4	+4.4	60.3	65.2
Hides and leather products	117.8	117.8	0	117.8	0	92.7	27.1
Shoes	126.4	126.4	0	126.4	0	100.8	25.4
Hides and skins	116.0	116.0	0	116.0	0	77.2	50.3
Leather	101.3	101.3	0	101.3	0	84.0	20.6
Other leather products	115.2	115.2	0	115.2	0	97.1	18.6
Textile products	97.6	97.5	+.1	97.1	+.5	67.8	44.0
Clothing	107.0	107.0	0	107.0	0	81.5	31.3
Cotton goods	112.9	112.9	0	112.4	+.4	65.5	72.4
Hosiery and underwear	71.4	70.5	+1.3	70.5	+1.3	61.5	16.1
Rayon	30.3	30.3	0	30.3	0	28.5	6.3
Silk	(1)	(1)		(1)		44.3	
Woolen and worsted goods	112.5	112.5	0	111.7	+.7	75.5	49.0
Other textile products	99.2	98.7	+.5	97.4	+1.8	63.7	55.7
Fuel and lighting materials	81.0	81.0	0	79.0	+2.5	72.6	11.6
Anthracite	89.9	89.9	0	85.7	+4.9	72.1	24.7
Bituminous coal	116.4	116.4	0	111.0	+4.9	96.0	21.3
Coke	122.4	122.4	0	122.1	+.2	104.2	17.5
Electricity	(1)	(1)		61.9		75.8	
Gas	(1)	77.1		79.2		86.7	
Petroleum and products	63.5	63.2	+.5	60.6	+4.8	51.7	22.8
Metals and metal products	103.7	103.7	0	103.8	−.1	93.2	11.3
Agricultural implements	96.9	96.9	0	96.9	0	93.5	3.6
Farm machinery	98.1	98.1	0	98.0	+.1	94.7	3.6
Iron and steel	97.1	97.1	0	97.2	−.1	95.1	2.1
Motor vehicles	112.8	112.8	0	112.8	0	92.5	21.9
Nonferrous metals	86.0	86.0	0	86.0	0	74.6	15.3
Plumbing and heating	90.2	90.2	0	94.1	−4.1	79.3	13.7
Building materials	112.7	112.5	+.2	110.4	+2.1	89.6	25.8
Brick and tile	99.0	99.0	0	98.7	+.3	90.5	9.4
Cement	93.6	93.6	0	94.2	−.6	91.3	2.5
Lumber	143.1	142.7	+.3	133.3	+7.4	90.1	58.8
Paint and paint materials	102.8	102.6	+.2	101.0	+1.8	82.1	25.2
Plumbing and heating	90.2	90.2	0	94.1	−4.1	79.3	13.7
Structural steel	107.3	107.3	0	107.3	0	107.3	0
Other building materials	102.2	102.0	+.2	103.3	−1.1	89.5	14.2
Chemicals and allied products	100.4	100.3	+.1	96.2	+4.4	74.2	35.3
Chemicals	96.4	96.5	−.1	96.2	+.2	83.8	15.0
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	165.2	165.2	0	128.8	+28.3	77.1	114.3
Fertilizer materials	81.3	80.6	+.9	78.3	+3.8	65.5	24.1
Mixed fertilizers	85.8	85.8	0	82.8	+3.6	73.1	17.4
Oils and fats	102.0	102.0	0	101.5	+.5	40.6	151.2
Housefurnishing goods	102.6	102.6	0	102.5	+.1	85.6	19.9
Furnishings	107.1	107.1	0	107.3	−.2	90.0	19.0
Furniture	98.1	98.1	0	97.4	+.7	81.1	21.0
Miscellaneous	93.1	93.0	+.1	88.6	+5.1	73.3	27.0
Automobile tires and tubes	73.0	73.0	0	73.0	0	60.5	20.7
Cattle feed	159.6	159.6	0	123.8	+28.9	68.4	133.3
Paper and pulp	105.6	105.6	0	98.8	+6.9	80.0	32.0
Rubber, crude	43.2	46.2	0	46.3	−.2	34.9	32.4
Other miscellaneous	96.4	96.3	+.1	92.4	+4.3	81.3	18.6
Raw materials	111.9	112.4	−.4	103.0	+8.6	66.5	68.3
Semimanufactured articles	92.9	92.9	0	92.7	+.2	74.5	24.7
Manufactured products	100.0	99.9	+.1	99.4	+.6	79.1	26.4
All commodities other than farm products	98.7	98.6	+.1	97.9	+.8	77.9	26.7
All commodities other than farm products and foods	97.3	97.2	+.1	95.5	+1.9	80.1	21.5

[1] Data not available.

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to October 1943

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1942, and by months from October 1942 to October 1943, are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting materials	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and allied products	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.0	94.3	82.6	95.3
1932	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.9	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.1	75.8	62.5	65.9
1936	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	78.7	81.7	70.5	80.8
1937	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	82.6	89.7	77.8	86.3
1938	68.5	73.6	92.8	66.7	76.5	95.7	90.3	77.0	86.8	73.3	78.6
1939	65.3	70.4	95.6	69.7	73.1	94.4	90.5	76.0	86.3	74.8	77.1
1940	67.7	71.3	100.8	73.8	71.7	95.8	94.8	77.0	88.5	77.3	78.6
1941	82.4	82.7	108.3	84.8	76.2	99.4	103.2	84.6	94.3	82.0	87.3
1942	105.9	99.6	117.7	96.9	78.5	103.8	110.2	97.1	102.4	89.7	98.8
1942											
October	109.0	103.4	117.8	97.1	79.0	103.8	110.4	96.2	102.5	88.6	100.0
November	110.5	103.5	117.8	97.1	79.1	103.8	110.1	99.5	102.5	90.1	100.3
December	113.8	104.3	117.8	97.2	79.2	103.8	110.0	99.5	102.5	90.5	101.0
1943											
January	117.0	105.2	117.8	97.3	79.3	103.8	109.8	100.2	102.5	90.7	101.9
February	119.0	105.8	117.8	97.3	79.8	103.8	110.2	100.3	102.6	90.9	102.5
March	122.8	107.4	117.8	97.3	80.3	103.8	110.4	100.0	102.6	91.4	103.4
April	123.9	108.4	117.8	97.4	80.6	103.8	110.3	100.1	102.6	91.6	103.7
May	125.7	110.5	117.8	97.4	80.8	103.8	110.5	100.2	102.7	91.9	104.1
June	126.2	109.6	117.8	97.4	81.0	103.8	110.6	100.0	102.8	91.8	103.8
July	125.0	107.2	117.8	97.4	81.0	103.7	110.7	100.1	102.6	92.3	103.2
August	123.5	105.8	117.8	97.4	80.9	103.7	112.2	100.2	102.6	92.6	103.1
September	123.1	105.0	117.8	97.5	81.0	103.7	112.5	100.3	102.6	93.0	103.1
October	122.2	105.1	117.8	97.6	81.0	103.7	112.7	100.4	102.6	93.1	103.0

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to October 1943

The price trend for specified years and months since 1926 is shown in table 3 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, manufactured products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods. The list of commodities included under the classifications "Raw materials," "Semimanufactured articles," and "Manufactured products" was shown on pages 10 to 12 of Wholesale Prices, December and Year 1941 (Serial No. R. 1434).

TABLE 3.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Special Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semimanufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semimanufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	*1943*					
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6						
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	Jan	108.2	92.8	100.1	98.5	96.0
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	Feb	109.6	92.9	100.3	98.7	96.2
1936	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6	Mar	112.0	93.0	100.5	99.0	96.5
						Apr	112.8	93.1	100.6	99.1	96.6
1937	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3	May	114.0	93.0	100.7	99.2	96.7
1938	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7	June	114.3	92.8	100.1	98.7	96.8
1939	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3	July	113.6	92.8	99.6	98.3	96.9
1940	71.9	79.1	81.6	80.8	83.0	Aug	112.7	92.9	99.7	98.5	97.1
1941	83.5	86.9	89.1	88.3	89.0	Sept	112.4	92.9	99.9	98.6	97.2
1942	100.6	92.6	98.6	97.0	95.5	Oct	111.9	92.9	100.0	98.7	97.3
1942											
Oct	103.0	92.7	99.4	97.9	95.5						
Nov	103.9	92.6	99.4	97.9	95.8						
Dec	106.1	92.5	99.6	98.1	95.9						

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly changes in wholesale prices by groups of commodities during September and October 1943 are shown by the index numbers in table 4. These indexes are not averaged to obtain an index for the month but are computed only to indicate the fluctuations from week to week.

TABLE 4.—*Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Commodity Groups, September and October 1943*

[1926=100]

Commodity group	Oct. 30	Oct. 23	Oct. 16	Oct. 9	Oct. 2	Sept. 25	Sept. 18	Sept. 11	Sept. 4
All commodities	102.8	102.9	102.9	102.8	103.0	102.9	102.9	102.8	102.8
Farm products	122.2	122.7	122.8	122.7	123.6	123.8	123.6	123.2	123.3
Foods	105.0	104.8	104.7	104.9	105.0	104.9	104.5	104.8	104.7
Hides and leather products	118.4	118.4	118.4	118.4	118.4	118.4	118.4	118.4	118.4
Textile products	97.2	97.1	97.1	97.0	97.0	97.0	97.0	97.0	97.0
Fuel and lighting materials	81.6	81.8	81.8	81.8	81.7	81.6	81.6	81.7	81.7
Metals and metal products	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8
Building materials	112.8	112.6	112.5	112.5	112.5	112.5	112.5	112.5	112.2
Chemicals and allied products	100.4	100.3	100.3	100.3	100.3	100.2	100.2	100.2	100.2
Housefurnishing goods	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2
Miscellaneous	92.9	92.9	92.9	93.1	93.1	92.6	92.6	92.6	92.4
Raw materials	111.8	112.1	112.2	112.1	112.5	112.6	112.4	112.2	112.3
Semimanufactured articles	92.8	92.8	92.8	92.8	92.8	92.8	92.8	92.8	92.8
Manufactured products	100.3	100.3	100.3	100.2	100.2	100.1	100.1	100.1	100.0
All commodities other than farm products	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.6	98.5	98.5	98.5	98.4
All commodities other than farm products and foods	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.5	97.4	97.4	97.4	97.3

Labor Turnover

Labor Turnover in Manufacturing, Mining, Telephone, and Telegraph Industries, September 1943

THE quit rate in September 1943 of 6.25 was slightly below the August high point of 6.30, despite the fact that the return of school teachers and students has normally resulted in an increased quit rate in September. The total separation rate for all manufacturing industries in September 1943 was 8.12 per 100 employees, or approximately the same as in September 1942. This year, however, 77 percent of all separations were quits, while a year before only 64 percent were in this category. Military separations represented only 8 percent of all separations in September 1943 as compared with 18 percent in September 1942.

Although shifting to other jobs was the reason most often advanced for the large number of quits, the return to school of teachers and students continued to be a very important factor. Transportation difficulties, inadequate housing, and home duties were very often advanced in explanation of quits.

The quit rates for women were considerably higher than for men in 29 of the 30 selected industries for which comparable data for women were shown. Extremely high quit rates for both men and women prevailed in the aluminum and magnesium smelting and refining industry—the rate for women being 9.01 per 100 employees and that for men 9.88.

The discharge rate declined slightly between August and September and further drops in this rate are anticipated. The extremely high discharge rate which prevailed during the summer months was due largely to the lack of adaptability of many of the young people who worked during their vacations.

In both anthracite and bituminous-coal mining the accession rates were even lower than the relatively low separation rates of 2.88 and 3.85 per 100 employees. The separation rate of 7.19 in the metal-mining group was offset by the accession rate of 7.60. The furloughing of ex-miners from the army to work in the mines is reflected in the accession rate of 10.11 in copper-ore mining and of 9.02 in the miscellaneous metal-mining industry which includes aluminum ore.

The separation rates for both the telephone and telegraph industries were below that for all manufacturing. The accession rate for the telephone industry was insufficient to maintain the level of employment, while in the telegraph industry the accession rate of 6.00 was more than enough to offset the separation rate of 4.99.

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TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees) in Manufacturing Industries* [1]

Class of turnover and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
Total separation:												
1943	7.11	7.04	7.69	7.54	6.57	7.07	7.56	8.18	[2]8.12			
1942	5.10	4.82	5.36	6.12	6.54	6.46	6.73	7.06	8.10	7.91	7.09	6.37
1939	3.19	2.61	3.18	3.46	3.48	3.31	3.36	3.01	2.79	2.91	2.95	3.46
Quit:												
1943	4.45	4.65	5.36	5.41	4.81	5.20	5.61	6.30	[2]6.25			
1942	2.36	2.41	3.02	3.59	3.77	3.85	4.02	4.31	5.19	4.65	4.21	3.71
1939	.85	.64	.82	.76	.68	.73	.70	.82	1.07	.93	.83	.69
Discharge:												
1943	.52	.50	.57	.53	.55	.61	.68	.67	[2].61			
1942	.30	.29	.33	.35	.38	.38	.43	.42	.44	.45	.43	.46
1939	.10	.10	.13	.10	.13	.12	.12	.14	.14	.17	.15	.12
Lay-off: [3]												
1943	.74	.54	.52	.64	.45	.50	.50	.46	[2].54			
1942	1.61	1.39	1.19	1.31	1.43	1.21	1.05	.87	.68	.78	.65	.70
1939	2.24	1.87	2.23	2.60	2.67	2.46	2.54	2.05	1.58	1.81	1.97	2.65
Military:												
1943	1.26	1.23	1.12	.87	.69	.69	.69	.67	[2].64			
1942	.67	.56	.63	.68	.68	.78	.93	1.13	1.48	1.71	1.55	1.29
Miscellaneous: [4]												
1943	.14	.12	.12	.09	.07	.07	.08	.08	[2].08			
1942	.16	.17	.19	.19	.28	.24	.30	.33	.31	.32	.25	.21
Accession:												
1943	8.28	7.87	8.32	7.43	7.18	8.40	7.83	7.62	[2]7.61			
1942	6.87	6.02	6.99	7.12	7.29	8.25	8.28	7.90	9.15	8.69	8.14	6.92
1939	4.09	3.06	3.34	2.93	3.29	3.92	4.16	5.06	6.17	5.89	4.10	2.84

[1] Turnover rates are not comparable to the employment and pay-roll reports issued monthly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, as the former are based on data for the entire month, while the latter refer only to pay periods ending nearest the middle of the month. In addition, labor turnover data refer to all employees whereas the employment and pay-roll reports relate only to wage earners. Certain seasonal industries such as canning and preserving, are not covered by the labor turnover survey and the sample is not as extensive as that of the employment survey which includes a larger number of small plants.

[2] Preliminary figure.

[3] Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

[4] Data for 1939 included with quits.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, September 1943* [1]

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge	Lay-off	Military and miscellaneous	Total accession	
	September	August	September	August	September	September	September	September	August
Manufacturing									
Iron and steel and their products	5.83	5.94	4.42	4.46	0.41	0.24	0.76	5.57	5.19
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	4.20	4.23	3.12	3.01	.19	.15	.74	3.69	3.52
Gray-iron castings	8.44	8.98	6.35	7.05	.90	.42	.77	7.72	7.70
Malleable-iron castings	6.24	7.21	5.13	5.96	.30	.17	.64	5.67	5.46
Steel castings	8.30	9.41	6.35	7.36	.72	.23	1.00	7.25	7.57
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	5.35	6.16	3.82	4.21	.34	.44	.75	6.03	6.15
Tin cans and other tinware	14.11	16.15	12.39	13.82	1.05	.27	.40	13.31	12.39
Wire products	3.34	3.92	2.47	2.79	.20	.12	.55	2.82	2.42
Cutlery and edge tools	6.47	7.30	5.50	5.90	.44	.11	.42	7.54	7.76
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	5.90	7.02	4.80	5.61	.48	.08	.54	6.15	7.00
Hardware	6.99	6.62	6.05	5.35	.31	.06	.57	7.34	5.20
Plumbers' supplies	5.37	6.33	4.28	4.86	.15	.03	.91	3.96	4.67
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment	8.38	11.08	6.13	7.03	1.07	.50	.68	10.57	10.35
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	5.85	6.12	4.55	4.95	.54	.02	.74	6.08	6.94
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	9.46	11.41	7.61	9.04	.84	.39	.62	10.05	11.66
Fabricated structural metal products	8.51	9.70	6.21	7.05	.87	.68	.75	8.56	8.43
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	6.33	6.51	4.94	5.00	.65	.07	.67	5.79	6.25

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, September 1943* [1]—Continued

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge	Layoff	Military and miscellaneous	Total accession	
	September	August	September	August	September	September	September	September	August
Iron and steel and their products—Con.									
Forgings, iron and steel	5.90	5.97	4.25	4.48	0.53	0.20	0.92	6.47	6.63
Firearms (60 caliber and under) [2]	6.79	7.08	5.23	5.47	.49	.22	.85	------	------
Machinery, except electrical	6.57	6.70	4.59	4.75	.68	.38	.92	5.44	5.75
Engines and turbines [2]	5.63	6.06	4.06	4.35	.57	.15	.85	------	------
Agricultural machinery and tractors	5.11	5.38	3.73	4.02	.37	.06	.95	6.97	7.96
Machine tools [2]	6.53	6.33	3.90	3.97	.61	.83	1.19	2.67	2.55
Machine-tool accessories [2 3]	6.77	6.22	4.55	4.04	.89	.35	.98	------	------
Metalworking machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified [2]	5.42	5.69	3.79	4.08	.62	.41	.60	------	------
Textile machinery	4.09	6.85	3.46	5.73	.16	.05	.42	5.28	5.25
General industrial machinery, except pumps	7.55	7.67	5.65	5.73	.78	.25	.87	7.00	7.37
Pumps and pumping equipment	6.80	5.62	4.90	3.91	.87	.34	.69	5.17	5.21
Automobiles	7.07	7.23	5.18	5.07	.75	.43	.71	8.33	10.04
Motor vehicles, bodies, and trailers	6.82	6.70	5.43	4.89	.42	.33	.64	7.87	10.74
Motor-vehicle parts and accessories	7.25	7.65	5.01	5.21	.99	.50	.75	8.66	9.50
Nonferrous metals and their products	8.40	9.50	6.48	7.06	.68	.26	.98	10.59	10.71
Primary smelting and refining, except aluminum and magnesium [2]	4.70	5.18	3.21	3.80	.26	.43	.80	------	------
Aluminum and magnesium smelting and refining [2]	12.39	14.11	9.81	10.58	1.16	.17	1.25	------	------
Rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys [2]	6.69	5.66	5.27	4.48	.33	.26	.83	------	------
Aluminum and magnesium products [2]	8.30	11.21	6.24	7.78	.68	.24	1.14	------	------
Lighting equipment	9.80	9.95	8.01	8.03	.61	.40	.78	10.10	10.68
Nonferrous metal foundries, except aluminum and magnesium [2]	8.01	8.36	6.22	6.53	.70	.25	.84	------	------
Lumber and timber basic products	8.66	9.51	7.06	7.56	.36	.70	.54	7.31	7.62
Sawmills	8.65	9.62	7.06	7.68	.27	.76	.56	7.37	7.67
Planing and plywood mills	8.19	8.66	6.51	6.65	.61	.61	.46	6.63	6.61
Furniture and finished lumber products	11.84	10.72	9.50	8.90	.84	.96	.54	10.58	9.84
Furniture, including mattresses and bedsprings	11.59	10.58	9.32	8.56	.93	.77	.57	10.27	10.12
Stone, clay, and glass products	7.74	7.32	5.98	5.45	.33	.68	.75	6.13	6.37
Glass and glass products	9.11	7.04	6.27	4.98	.47	1.33	1.04	8.42	7.38
Cement	5.11	6.13	3.91	3.87	.19	.50	.51	2.47	3.73
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	9.05	8.95	7.17	6.53	.37	.81	.70	5.37	5.68
Pottery and related products	7.45	7.65	6.57	6.22	.13	.17	.58	6.99	8.13
Electrical machinery	7.33	5.92	5.87	4.72	.52	.23	.71	8.15	6.36
Electrical equipment for industrial use [2]	5.82	5.15	4.37	3.95	.36	.46	.63	------	------
Radios, radio equipment, and phonographs [2]	8.26	7.76	6.74	6.25	.80	.07	.65	------	------
Communication equipment, except radios [2]	8.01	4.46	6.77	3.69	.38	.02	.84	------	------
Ordnance	7.31	7.76	5.09	5.40	.61	.89	.72	7.74	8.42
Guns, howitzers, mortars, and related equipment [2]	6.99	7.24	4.71	5.16	.69	.83	.76	------	------
Ammunition, except for small arms [2]	8.13	8.54	5.92	6.53	.64	.87	.70	------	------
Tanks	9.30	8.44	5.45	4.44	.72	2.41	.72	------	------
Sighting and fire-control equipment [2]	4.29	4.92	3.08	3.57	.38	.11	.72	------	------
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	8.24	8.75	5.96	6.30	1.09	.31	.88	9.05	8.89
Aircraft [2]	6.91	7.06	5.43	5.67	.51	.20	.77	------	------
Aircraft parts [2]	5.49	5.92	4.00	4.19	.55	.24	.70	------	------
Shipbuilding and repairs [2]	10.42	11.32	7.26	7.76	1.75	.38	1.03	------	------
Textile-mill products	8.24	8.25	7.07	6.87	.36	.37	.44	6.61	6.64
Cotton	9.10	9.04	7.98	7.50	.40	.28	.44	6.98	7.16
Silk and rayon goods	7.85	8.92	6.92	7.86	.31	.20	.42	7.37	7.78
Woolen and worsted, except dyeing and finishing	6.61	5.62	5.08	4.30	.28	.72	.53	5.46	4.94
Hosiery, full-fashioned	6.91	6.62	6.15	5.67	.27	.19	.30	5.13	5.45

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor Turnover Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, September 1943* [1]—Continued

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge	Lay-off	Military and miscellaneous	Total accession	
	September	August	September	August	September	September	September	September	August
Textile-mill products—Continued.									
Hosiery, seamless	7.88	7.51	7.02	6.70	0.28	0.25	0.33	7.17	6.19
Knitted underwear	8.05	9.53	7.25	8.66	.27	.21	.32	6.56	6.50
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	7.37	7.52	5.55	6.00	.56	.70	.56	5.73	5.83
Apparel and other finished textile products	8.45	8.55	7.59	7.42	.27	.42	.17	6.81	6.92
Men's and boys' suits, coats, and overcoats	6.26	6.16	5.29	5.20	.12	.66	.19	4.81	4.75
Men's and boys' furnishings, work clothing, and allied garments	8.91	8.84	8.17	8.11	.35	.25	.14	6.96	7.64
Women's clothing, except corsets	9.65	9.44	9.04	8.60	.19	.27	.15	7.83	5.94
Leather and leather products	6.54	7.30	5.45	6.31	.26	.25	.58	4.81	5.97
Leather	5.13	5.84	3.79	4.55	.18	.57	.59	3.55	3.18
Boots and shoes	6.86	7.51	5.81	6.58	.28	.18	.59	5.12	6.48
Food and kindred products	11.83	12.38	9.68	9.67	.58	.71	.86	11.16	11.90
Meat products	10.52	12.18	8.18	9.31	.54	.74	1.06	9.22	12.11
Grain-mill products	11.69	12.82	9.29	10.89	1.19	.35	.86	12.80	12.56
Paper and allied products	8.40	8.73	6.81	7.01	.48	.47	.64	7.86	8.08
Paper and pulp	6.73	7.56	5.53	5.91	.41	.13	.66	6.19	7.11
Paper boxes	12.51	12.11	9.69	9.90	.58	1.64	.60	11.91	10.73
Chemicals and allied products	8.74	7.43	5.36	5.61	.51	2.10	.77	5.59	5.60
Paints, varnishes, and colors	7.71	7.54	5.62	4.82	1.16	.22	.71	6.75	6.21
Rayon and allied products	4.73	4.68	3.92	3.52	.26	.12	.43	4.65	4.68
Industrial chemicals, except explosives	5.41	5.17	3.89	3.87	.47	.19	.86	5.15	5.05
Explosives [2]	5.91	5.72	4.57	4.18	.28	.18	.88	------	------
Small-arms ammunition [2]	12.98	9.72	6.63	7.29	.57	4.93	.85	------	------
Products of petroleum and coal	3.70	3.80	2.67	2.67	.27	.15	.61	3.08	3.66
Petroleum refining	3.34	3.47	2.39	2.50	.22	.14	.59	2.83	3.44
Rubber products	7.41	7.93	6.29	6.78	.33	.11	.68	8.27	8.45
Rubber tires and inner tubes	5.56	5.86	4.57	5.01	.21	.04	.74	7.43	8.47
Rubber footwear and related products	8.67	10.75	7.72	9.73	.23	.08	.64	6.11	6.56
Miscellaneous rubber industries	8.28	8.68	7.07	7.37	.40	.14	.67	8.87	8.64
Tobacco manufactures	9.77	10.06	8.73	9.10	.26	.43	.35	8.76	11.45
Miscellaneous industries	5.71	4.87	4.11	3.57	.28	.79	.53	4.14	4.53
Nonmanufacturing									
Metal mining [4]	7.19	7.57	5.41	5.54	.68	.56	.54	7.60	8.08
Iron ore	4.30	4.14	2.39	2.74	.35	1.05	.51	2.23	3.05
Copper ore	6.96	7.57	5.88	6.13	.54	.11	.43	10.11	9.44
Lead and zinc ore	5.94	6.28	4.72	5.04	.58	.16	.48	6.45	8.75
Gold-silver ore	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
Metal mining (not elsewhere classified), including aluminum ore	11.77	14.00	8.06	8.85	1.37	1.52	.82	9.02	11.87
Coal mining:									
Anthracite mining	2.88	2.72	1.99	1.89	.03	.47	.39	1.84	2.15
Bituminous-coal mining	3.85	4.04	3.01	3.17	.17	.06	.61	3.09	3.55
Public utilities:									
Telephone	4.18	4.08	3.62	3.51	.15	.14	.27	3.54	3.88
Telegraph	4.99	4.95	4.55	4.34	.10	.13	.21	6.00	6.27

[1] September data are preliminary.
[2] Publication of accession rates is restricted in these specific war industries.
[3] Revised July data for machine tools and machine-tool accessories, respectively, are as follows: Total separation 6.18, 6.83; quit 3.85, 4.23; discharge 0.60, 1.06; lay-off 0.79, 0.60; military and miscellaneous 0.94, 0.94; total accession 2.67, 4.28.
[4] Data for the various metal-mining industries not published previously. Data back to March 1943 are available upon request.
[5] Not available.

TABLE 3.—*Monthly Labor Turnover Rates for Men and Women in Selected Industries Engaged in War Production, September 1943* [1]

Industry	Rate per 100 employees [2]					
	Total separation		Quit		Total accession	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Iron and steel and their products	5.30	9.18	3.84	8.17	4.66	11.40
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	3.90	7.43	2.78	6.82	3.11	10.00
Gray-iron castings	8.24	11.41	6.24	8.12	7.46	11.78
Malleable-iron castings	7.14	8.16	5.90	6.77	5.08	10.57
Steel castings	8.20	9.34	6.19	8.26	6.92	11.14
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	5.14	8.03	3.63	6.05	4.24	27.94
Firearms (60 caliber and under)	5.40	9.34	3.53	8.36	6.00	11.52
Machinery, except electrical	5.87	9.50	3.79	7.91	4.37	9.88
Engines and turbines	4.87	8.90	3.21	7.74	4.49	11.45
Machine tools [3]	5.98	9.60	3.30	7.25	2.12	5.68
Machine-tool accessories [3]	5.92	9.59	3.47	8.16	3.70	6.61
Metalworking machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified	5.01	7.79	3.33	6.38	3.28	8.72
General industrial machinery, except pumps	6.70	10.26	4.67	8.76	5.58	11.47
Pumps and pumping equipment	6.40	9.16	4.38	8.01	4.87	6.93
Nonferrous metals and their products	8.03	10.10	5.98	8.67	9.79	14.14
Primary smelting and refining, except aluminum and magnesium	4.39	11.76	2.96	8.75	3.34	9.05
Aluminum and magnesium smelting and refining	12.56	10.44	9.88	9.01	15.85	15.76
Rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys	5.85	9.58	4.23	8.85	5.54	10.54
Aluminum and magnesium products	7.80	10.73	5.60	9.27	11.38	18.59
Nonferrous metal foundries, except aluminum and magnesium	7.27	9.77	5.56	7.81	7.09	13.37
Electrical machinery	5.64	9.21	4.05	7.91	6.05	10.51
Electrical equipment for industrial use	4.41	7.97	2.99	6.47	4.32	8.90
Radios, radio equipment, and phonographs	6.13	9.70	4.22	8.45	6.99	11.29
Communication equipment, except radios	5.43	10.14	3.97	9.09	5.70	11.48
Ordnance	6.16	9.86	3.90	7.71	5.85	11.90
Guns, howitzers, mortars, and related equipment	6.03	10.04	3.78	7.69	4.73	11.73
Ammunition, except for small arms	6.52	10.63	4.32	8.40	7.40	12.69
Tanks	8.69	11.94	4.93	7.70	6.77	12.54
Sighting and fire-control equipment	3.61	5.82	2.17	5.08	3.43	8.68
Transportation equipment except automobiles	7.82	9.58	5.31	8.10	8.07	12.32
Aircraft	6.13	8.14	4.22	7.34	7.03	10.08
Aircraft parts	4.54	8.15	2.92	6.99	5.60	12.85
Shipbuilding and repairs	10.26	14.72	6.97	11.29	9.66	17.27
Chemicals and allied products	6.60	13.06	4.10	7.91	4.69	7.38
Industrial chemicals, except explosives	4.84	8.55	3.34	6.86	4.49	8.75
Explosives	4.67	8.01	3.25	6.79	3.16	6.47
Small arms ammunition	9.69	16.50	4.96	8.41	4.31	6.54

[1] Data are preliminary.

[2] These figures are presented to show comparative turnover rates and should not be used to estimate employment.

[3] Revised July data for machine tools and machine-tool accessories are as follows;

	Total separation		Quit		Total accession	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Machine tools	5.65	9.09	3.45	6.05	2.15	5.46
Machine-tool accessories	6.43	8.15	3.67	6.13	3.53	6.79

Building Operations

Estimated Construction Activity in Continental United States, First 9 Months of 1942 and 1943

ONE indication of the growing effectiveness of the War Production Board's efforts to direct the flow of critical materials and manpower into war production through elimination of all nonessential construction projects is the steadily declining rate of construction activity. Reaching an all-time peak of 4.3 billion dollars in the third quarter of 1942, construction expenditures turned downward in the fourth quarter and by the third quarter of 1943 had declined to a level of 1.7 billion dollars. Total new construction expenditures for the first 9 months of 1943 amounted to 6.1 billion dollars, as compared with 10.2 billion in the first three-quarters of 1942.

Construction for private account, limited to the barest essentials by the War Production Board, amounted to only 1.2 billion dollars in the first 9 months of the current year. This was less than half of the total for the comparable period of 1942. Third-quarter expenditures, however, showed a seasonal increase of 60 million dollars over the second quarter of 1943.

Expenditures on public projects, largely determined by the war and industrial facilities construction programs, continued the downward trend that started with the fourth quarter of 1942. Public construction expenditures of 1.3 billion dollars in the third quarter of 1943 were little more than a third of such expenditures in the third quarter of the previous year. The total for the first 9 months was 4.9 billion dollars as compared with 7.6 billion in the first 9 months of 1942.

Private Construction

The increase in privately financed construction expenditures between the second and third quarters of 1943 was mainly the result of increased nonfarm residential construction from 190 to 243 million dollars. Although nonfarm residential construction activity for the first 9 months of 1943 amounted to only 576 million dollars as compared with 1,217 million in 1942, both the second and third quarters showed substantial gains over the preceding 3 month periods.

Third-quarter private nonresidential construction expenditures remained at about the same level as in the second quarter. The total of 114 million dollars for the first 9 months of 1943 was only one-fourth of the total for the same period of 1942.

In spite of the fact that food production goals were increased in 1943, farm construction expenditures have remained at a low level throughout the year. Third-quarter expenditures of 84 million dollars were 13 million more than in the second quarter. During the first 9 months of the year farmers spent only slightly more than half of what

they spent for dwellings in the same period of 1942. For service buildings, farmers spent 148 million dollars in 1943 as against 237 million dollars for the same period of the previous year.

Construction expenditures on public utility systems remained fairly constant throughout the first 9 months of 1943. The 104 million dollars spent in each of the first two quarters dropped to 97 million in the third quarter. The 9-month total of 305 million dollars amounted to about three-fifths of the 1942 total.

Public Construction

The one bright spot in the public construction picture was the increased rate of activity in the building of badly needed houses and apartments in crowded centers of war production. The sum of approximately 538 million dollars was spent for this purpose in the first 3 quarters of 1943, as compared with 346 million in 1942. Third-quarter expenditures of 161 million dollars, however, were 11 million dollars less than in the third quarter of 1942 and 51 million less than in the second quarter of 1943. Public nonresidential construction expenditures, exclusive of those for industrial facilities, were heavily curtailed in 1942 and in the first quarter of the current year amounted to only 7 million dollars. The building of schools, hospitals, and recreation centers under the War Public Works program, however, lifted nonresidential building from the low level of the first quarter to 10 million in the second and 16 million dollars in the third quarter.

Estimated New Construction Activity in Continental United States, First 9 Months of 1942 and 1943, by Quarter [1]

Function and ownership	Estimated amounts (in millions of dollars) spent for construction							
	1943				1942			
	Total, first 9 months	First quarter	Second quarter	Third quarter	Total, first 9 months	First quarter	Second quarter	Third quarter
Total new construction	6,128	2,311	2,080	1,737	10,202	2,506	3,430	4,266
Private construction	1,222	364	399	459	2,561	899	950	712
Residential (nonfarm)	576	143	190	243	1,217	463	471	283
Nonresidential	114	45	34	35	454	201	153	100
Farm:								
Residential	79	26	25	28	148	34	59	55
Service buildings	148	46	46	56	237	51	89	97
Public utility	305	104	104	97	505	150	178	177
Public construction	4,906	1,947	1,681	1,278	7,641	1,607	2,480	3,554
Residential (including war housing)	538	165	212	161	346	77	97	172
Nonresidential (excluding industrial facilities)	33	7	10	16	121	47	42	32
Industrial facilities	1,459	663	461	335	2,514	542	846	1,126
Military and naval (not including industrial facilities or war housing)	2,152	893	746	513	3,704	689	1,152	1,863
Highway	319	82	111	126	527	131	190	197
Other public:								
Federal [2]	319	107	113	99	297	77	95	125
State and local [3]	86	30	28	28	132	44	49	39

[1] The estimates include expenditures for new construction in the continental United States. They do not include work relief construction expenditures or maintenance expenditures. The estimates do include expenditures for major additions and alterations.

[2] Includes conservation and development, T. V. A., and public pipe line construction expenditures.

[3] Includes water supply, sewage disposal, and miscellaneous public service enterprises.

With the industrial facilities and war construction programs nearing completion, greatly reduced quarterly rates of activity are to be expected. Expenditures for the construction of war plants amounted to only 335 million dollars in the third quarter as compared with 1,126 million in the third quarter of 1942. The 9-month total of 1,459 million dollars compares with 2,514 million last year. Military and naval construction expenditures were down to a level of 513 million dollars in the third quarter as against 1,863 million in the same period of 1942. The 9-month total was 2,152 million dollars.

Highway construction showed a seasonal increase of 15 million dollars in the third quarter but was still considerably below the level of a year ago. The 9-month total of 319 million dollars was 208 million under the figure for the first 9 months of 1942. All other Federal construction combined (which includes river, harbor, and flood control works, TVA projects, and pipe-line construction) amounted to 319 million dollars in the first 3 quarters of 1943 as against 297 million in 1942. Federally financed pipe-line construction accounted for the increase. State and local construction expenditures of 86 million dollars in the first 3 quarters of 1943 were 46 million less than in 1942.

Building Construction in Urban Areas, October 1943

THE dollar valuation of building construction started in urban areas during October 1943 was 8 percent more than for that started during September 1943. The value of Federal contracts awarded increased 29 percent, but the valuation of private work declined 2 percent. New residential construction started during October was 37 percent greater than that started during September, but new nonresidential construction declined by 7 percent, and additions, alterations, and repairs, by 10 percent.

Building construction started during October 1943 was 23 percent less than in October 1942, as a result of the 48-percent decline in the value of Federal contracts awarded. Permit valuations for non-Federal construction increased 13 percent over the October 1942 total. The dollar volume of new residential buildings declined 24 percent, and of new nonresidential buildings, 37 percent; additions, alterations, and repairs, however, increased 28 percent from the totals for October 1942.

Comparison of October 1943 with September 1943 and October 1942

The volume of Federally financed and other building construction in urban areas of the United States in September and October 1943 and October 1942 is summarized in table 1.

The number of new dwelling units in urban areas for which permits were issued or contracts were awarded during October 1943 and the estimated valuation of such new housekeeping residential construction are presented in table 2.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Building Construction in All Urban Areas, October 1943*

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Valuation		
	October 1943	Percent of change from—		October 1943 (in thousands)	Percent of change from—	
		September 1943	October 1942		September 1943	October 1942
All building construction	60,440	+0.1	−6.7	$120,990	+8.4	−23.2
New residential	14,734	+37.0	−20.6	56,107	+36.8	−24.0
New nonresidential	7,785	−7.4	−13.6	40,938	−7.0	−37.1
Additions, alterations, and repairs	37,921	−7.9	+1.9	23,945	−9.8	+28.4

TABLE 2.—*Number and Valuation of New Dwelling Units in All Urban Areas, by Type of Dwelling, October 1943*

Type of financing and dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation		
	October 1943	Percent of change from—		October 1943 (in thousands)	Percent of change from—	
		September 1943	October 1942		September 1943	October 1942
All dwellings	18,170	+31.7	−19.0	$55,836	+38.5	−23.5
Privately financed	11,840	+8.6	+2.8	37,861	+10.7	+.6
1-family	7,018	+5.0	−20.9	23,946	+7.1	−21.0
2-family [1]	1,802	+17.4	+60.7	5,311	+23.3	+56.7
Multifamily [2]	3,020	+12.4	+98.6	8,604	+14.0	+20.5
Federally financed	6,330	+119.0	−42.0	17,975	+194.6	−49.2

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Comparison of First 10 Months of 1942 and 1943

Permit valuations and contract values reported in the first 10 months of 1942 and 1943 are compared in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Valuation of Building Construction in All Urban Areas, by Class of Construction, First 10 Months of 1942 and 1943*

Class of construction	Valuation (in thousands of dollars) of—					
	All construction: First 10 months			Federal construction: First 10 months		
	1943	1942	Percent of change	1943	1942	Percent of change
All construction	1,082,271	2,451,830	−55.9	504,240	1,452,591	−65.3
New residential	486,346	824,583	−41.0	168,934	275,693	−38.7
New nonresidential	402,343	1,374,351	−70.7	322,144	1,144,147	−71.8
Additions, alterations, and repairs	193,582	252,896	−23.5	13,162	32,751	−59.8

The number and valuation of new dwelling units for which permits were issued and contracts awarded during the first 10 months of 1943 are compared with similar data for 1942 in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Number and Valuation of New Dwelling Units in All Urban Areas, by Source of Funds and Type of Dwelling, First 10 Months of 1942 and 1943*

Type of financing and dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation (in thousands)		
	First 10 months of—		Percent of change	First 10 months of—		Percent of change
	1943	1942		1943	1942	
All dwellings	176,878	248,853	−28.9	$478,344	$807,201	−40.7
Privately financed	101,840	167,755	−39.3	316,585	554,223	−42.9
1-family	65,603	126,872	−48.3	216,215	436,919	−50.5
2-family [1]	13,932	13,498	+3.2	38,984	36,861	+5.8
Multifamily [2]	22,305	27,385	−18.6	61,386	80,443	−23.7
Federally financed	75,038	81,098	−7.5	161,759	252,978	−36.1

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Construction From Public Funds, October 1943

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during September and October 1943 and October 1942 on all construction projects and shipbuilding financed wholly or partially from Federal funds and reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, is shown in table 5. This table includes all other types of construction as well as building construction, both inside and outside urban areas of the United States.

TABLE 5.—*Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started in Construction Projects and Shipbuilding Financed From Federal Funds, October 1943*

Federal agency	Contracts awarded and force-account work started (in thousands)		
	October 1943 [1]	September 1943 [2]	October 1942 [2]
Total	$314,491	$556,516	$505,602
War public works	4,255	4,260	3,451
Regular Federal appropriations	277,522	536,247	456,997
Federal Public Housing Authority	32,714	16,009	45,154

[1] Preliminary; subject to revision.
[2] Revised.

Coverage and Method

Figures on building construction shown in this report cover the entire urban area of the United States, which, by Census definition, includes all incorporated places with a 1940 population of 2,500 or more and, by special rule, a small number of unincorporated civil divisions. The volume of privately financed construction is estimated from the building-permit data received from a large majority of all

urban places, and these estimates are combined with data on building-construction contracts awarded as furnished by Federal and State agencies. The contracts awarded for Federally financed building construction in urban areas were valued at $48,463,000 in October 1943, $37,692,000 in September 1943, and $93,659,000 in October 1942.

The valuation figures represent estimates of construction costs made by prospective private builders when applying for permits to build, and the value of contracts awarded by the Federal and State governments. No land costs are included. Unless otherwise indicated, only building construction within the corporate limits of cities in the urban areas is included in the tabulations.

Trend of Employment, Earnings and Hours

Summary of Reports for October 1943

THE total number of employees in nonagricultural establishments was 38,286,000 in October 1943, or about 35,000 more than in September. The gain reflects the addition of 140,000 workers to the trade division, a seasonal increase, and an increase in manufacturing employment. The only sizable decline, 90,000 employees, was in construction and was brought about by the completion of many Federal construction contracts.

Industrial and Business Employment

The increase of 58,000 wage earners in the durable-goods group of manufacturing industries and the decline of 35,000 in the nondurable group resulted in a net increase of 23,000 wage earners in all manufacturing industries.

Employment in 7 of the 9 durable-goods groups increased. The largest increase, 29,000 wage earners, was in the transportation-equipment group and was due to expansion of the aircraft and aircraft-engine industries. Recent administrative measures relating to employment in West Coast aircraft plants are responsible to a large extent for the expanded aircraft employment.

Among the nondurable groups, only the food group showed a sizable decrease in employment. The seasonal employment decline in the canning industry lowered employment in the food group to 1,049,000—55,000 below the September level.

Employment in bituminous-coal mining and in metal mining were each 2,000 below that in September 1943. Bituminous-coal mining employed 372,000 wage earners in October 1943, as compared with 427,000 in October 1942. Of the metal-mining industries, only copper mining and lead and zinc mining employed more wage earners than in October 1942. The metal-mining group as a whole employed almost 9,000 fewer wage earners than last October.

Employment in laundries and in dyeing and cleaning establishments was considerably below the level in October 1942. Although wage-earner employment in dyeing and cleaning plants was 1,200 above the September figure, it was still 2,300 below last October. Employment in laundries declined by 1,000 between September and October to 249,000—24,000 less than in October 1942.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners and Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment in Manufacturing Industries, by Major Industry Group* [1]

[Subject to revision]

Industry group	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)				Wage-earner indexes (1939=100)	
	October 1943	September 1943	August 1943	October 1942	October 1943	September 1943
All manufacturing	13,969	13,946	14,003	13,166	170.5	170.2
Durable goods	8,388	8,330	8,321	7,464	232.3	230.7
Nondurable goods	5,581	5,616	5,682	5,702	121.8	122.6
Iron and steel and their products	1,728	1,721	1,718	1,635	174.3	173.6
Electrical machinery	736	725	717	610	283.9	279.8
Machinery, except electrical	1,253	1,248	1,251	1,148	237.2	236.2
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	2,335	2,306	2,304	1,836	1471.0	1453.0
Automobiles	745	738	714	572	185.2	183.4
Nonferrous metals and their products	421	417	415	392	183.9	181.8
Lumber and timber basic products	463	467	482	535	110.2	111.0
Furniture and finished lumber products	357	356	362	368	108.8	108.6
Stone, clay, and glass products	350	352	358	368	119.1	119.8
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,187	1,185	1,204	1,275	103.8	103.6
Apparel and other finished textile products	825	822	834	904	104.5	104.1
Leather and leather products	311	315	325	357	89.6	90.8
Food	1,049	1,104	1,110	1,099	122.8	129.2
Tobacco manufactures	89	88	88	99	95.1	94.7
Paper and allied products	312	311	315	300	117.8	117.2
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	336	330	337	331	102.5	100.7
Chemicals and allied products	738	736	741	673	255.9	255.4
Products of petroleum and coal	126	126	127	126	118.9	119.0
Rubber products	199	195	194	169	164.2	161.2
Miscellaneous industries	409	404	407	369	167.0	165.1

[1] The estimates and indexes presented in this table have been adjusted to final data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency and are not comparable with data shown in previous reports for December 1942 and prior months. Estimates and indexes for the period, January 1939 to November 1942, comparable with the data in the above table are available upon request.

Public Employment

Employees in the Federal executive service numbered 2,963,000 at the end of October 1943. Although this was 264,000 above the October 1942 level, it was a drop of 2,900 from September 1943 and of 165,000 from the peak of 3,128,000 in June. The major declines during the 4-month period June–October 1943 occurred in the War Department (180,000), War Manpower Commission (13,500), and Federal Security Agency (2,900). Partially offsetting increases took place mainly in the Navy Department (18,400), Post Office Department (10,200), and Treasury Department (2,400). The additions made by the Treasury Department were required to handle the current income-tax collections, and those by the Post Office Department, to handle the foreign Christmas mailings. In the Washington metropolitan area, war agencies have dropped 7,600 employees since June, and other agencies 3,100.

Total employment on construction and shipbuilding and repair projects dropped 58,000 during the month ending October 15, and 667,000 during the preceding year. All types of projects, except shipbuilding and repair and war public works, were affected.

Work relief was authorized to be continued in Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands, with a total of approximately 40,000 project workers.

The number of such workers has declined steadily from July to October 1943, as is indicatd by the following figures:

	Employment	*Pay-roll expenditures*
July 1943	40, 932	$592, 360
August 1943	39, 515	1, 117, 123
September 1943	39, 494	1, 077, 436
October 1943	36, 891	1, 187, 670

In October approximately 800 of these project workers were in the Virgin Islands and the rest, 36,100, were in Puerto Rico.

For the regular Federal services, data for the legislative and judicial services and for force-account employees in the executive service are reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics; data for other executive-service employees are reported through the Civil Service Commission. The Bureau of Labor Statistics receives monthly reports on employment and pay rolls for the various construction projects financed wholly or partially by Federal funds, directly from the contractors and subcontractors, and for the work-relief program from the Washington office.

A summary of employment and pay-roll data for the regular Federal services, for construction projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds, and for the Puerto Rico and Virgin Islands work-relief program is given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Employment and Pay Rolls in Regular Federal Services and on Projects Financed Wholly or Partially From Federal Funds*

Service or program	Employment			Pay rolls		
	October 1943	September 1943	October 1942	October 1943	September 1943	October 1942
Regular Federal services:						
Executive [1]	2, 963, 129	2, 966, 064	2, 699, 303	$556, 423, 000	$556, 954, 000	$448, 562, 923
War agencies [2]	2, 164, 522	2, 171, 943	1, 879, 660	395, 219, 000	396, 075, 000	305, 705, 883
Other agencies	798, 607	794, 120	819, 643	161, 204, 000	160, 879, 000	142, 857, 040
Judicial	2, 647	2, 651	2, 666	767, 438	768, 235	677, 693
Legislative	6, 110	6, 135	6, 319	1, 494, 947	1, 502, 366	1, 379, 162
Construction projects:						
Financed from regular Federal appropriations [3]	1, 954, 900	1, 992, 100	2, 537, 300	475, 806, 000	491, 965, 000	514, 978, 000
War	1, 905, 600	1, 937, 800	2, 446, 700	466, 057, 000	481, 226, 000	498, 793, 000
Other	49, 300	54, 300	90, 600	9, 749, 000	10, 739, 000	16, 185, 000
Public housing	61, 900	64, 800	79, 500	13, 413, 000	14, 058, 000	12, 955, 000
War public works	15, 500	15, 500	13, 100	2, 335, 000	2, 334, 000	1, 723, 000
Financed by RFC	120, 500	138, 100	190, 300	26, 633, 000	30, 519, 000	39, 346, 000
War	120, 300	137, 900	188, 200	26, 605, 000	30, 491, 000	38, 983, 000
Other	200	200	2, 100	28, 000	28, 000	363, 000
Puerto Rico and Virgin Islands work relief	36, 891	39, 494	[5] 381, 295	1, 187, 670	1, 077, 436	[5] 25, 629, 385
War	(4)	(4)	[5] 123, 812	(4)	(4)	[5] 9, 250, 000
Other	(4)	(4)	[5] 257, 483	(4)	(4)	[5] 16, 379, 385

[1] Includes employees in United States navy yards and on force-account construction who are also included under construction projects. Data for October 1942 are not strictly comparable with the series starting June 1943 because of the inclusion of employees on terminal leave in the earlier figure and the inclusion beginning June 1943 of approximately 7,000 employees of the War Shipping Administration who were previously unreported.

[2] Covers War and Navy Departments, Maritime Commission, National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, The Panama Canal, Office for Emergency Management, Office of Censorship, Office of Price Administration, Office of Strategic Services, Foreign Economic Administration, and the Petroleum Administration for War.

[3] Includes ship construction and repair in United States navy yards and the Federally financed part thereof in private shipyards.

[4] Break-down not available.

[5] Data cover entire Work Projects Administration program, which was abolished at the end of June 1943 except for the work in Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands.

Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, September 1943

Estimates of Nonagricultural Employment

ESTIMATES of civil employees in nonagricultural establishments by major groups are given in table 1. With the exception of the trade and finance-service-miscellaneous groups, they are not comparable with estimates published in the September 1942 or earlier issues of the Monthly Labor Review. Comparable figures for the months from January 1939 to July 1942 are given in the October 1942 issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

The estimates are based on reports of employers to the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, on data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security and the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance of the Federal Security Agency, and on information supplied by other Government agencies, such as the Interstate Commerce Commission, Civil Service Commission, and the Bureau of the Census. They do not include military personnel, emergency employment (such as WPA, NYA, and CCC), proprietors or self-employed persons, unpaid family workers, or domestics.

Estimates of employees in nonagricultural establishments by States are given each month in the Bureau of Labor Statistics' mimeographed release on employment and pay rolls.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Number of Employees in Nonagricultural Establishments, by Industry Division*

[In thousands]

Industry division	September 1943	August 1943	July 1943	September 1942
Total estimated employment [1]	[2] 38,251	38,245	38,364	38,348
Manufacturing	16,179	16,245	16,136	15,233
Mining	825	823	830	910
Contract construction and Federal force-account construction	1,066	1,162	1,218	2,185
Transportation and public utilities	3,708	3,695	3,683	3,542
Trade	6,285	6,218	6,290	6,561
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	4,334	4,331	4,359	4,397
Federal, State, and local government, excluding Federal force-account construction	[2] 5,854	5,771	5,848	5,520

[1] Estimates exclude proprietors of unincorporated businesses, self-employed persons, domestics employed in private homes, public emergency employees, and personnel in the armed forces.
[2] Preliminary.

Industrial and Business Employment

Monthly reports on employment and pay rolls are available for 152 manufacturing industries and for 16 nonmanufacturing industries, including private building construction, water transportation, and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first 2 of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The figures on water transportation are based on estimates prepared by the Maritime Commission, and those on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission.

The employment, pay-roll, hours, and earnings figures for manufacturing, mining, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning cover wage

earners only, but the figures for public utilities, brokerage, insurance, and hotels relate to all employees except corporation officers and executives, while for trade they relate to all employees except corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory. For crude-petroleum production they cover wage earners and clerical field force. The coverage of the reporting samples for the various nonmanufacturing industries ranges from approximately 25 percent for wholesale and retail trade, dyeing and cleaning, and insurance, to approximately 80 percent for public utilities and 90 percent for mining.

The general manufacturing indexes are computed from reports supplied by representative establishments in the 152 manufacturing industries surveyed. These reports cover more than 65 percent of the total wage earners in all manufacturing industries of the country and about 80 percent of the wage earners in the 152 industries covered.

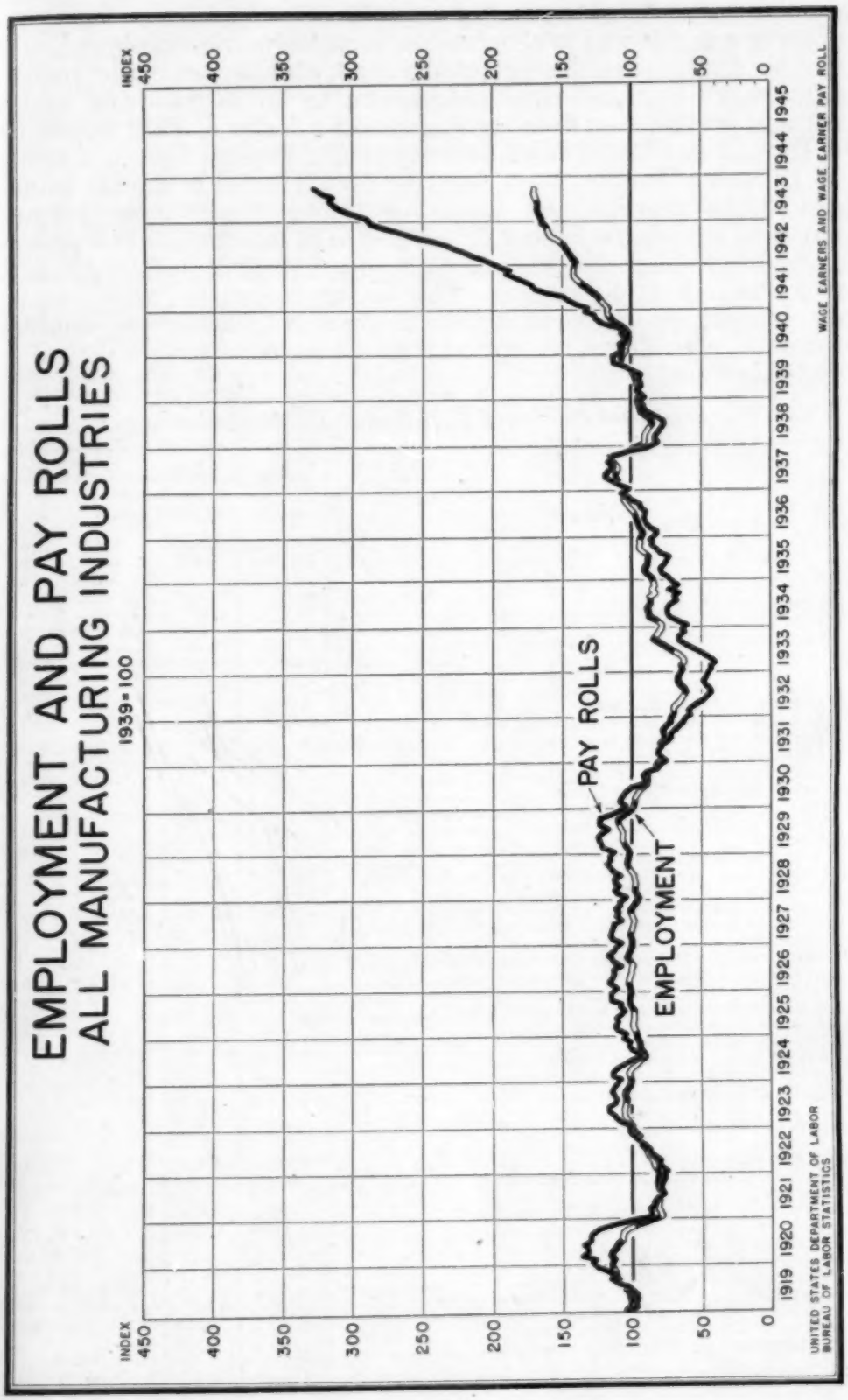
Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and the amount of pay rolls for the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

The average weekly earnings for individual industries shown in table 6 are computed by dividing the weekly pay rolls in the reporting establishments by the total number of full- and part-time employees reported. As not all reporting establishments supply information on man-hours, the average hours worked per week and average hourly earnings shown in that table are necessarily based on data furnished by a slightly smaller number of reporting firms. Because of variation in the size and composition of the reporting sample, the average hours per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings shown may not be strictly comparable from month to month. The sample, however, is believed to be sufficiently adequate in virtually all instances to indicate the general movement of earnings and hours over the period shown. The average weekly hours and hourly earnings for the manufacturing groups are weighted arithmetic means of the averages for the individual industries, estimated employment being used as weights for weekly hours and estimated aggregate hours as weights for hourly earnings. The average weekly earnings for these groups are now computed by multiplying the average weekly hours by the corresponding average hourly earnings, and are not comparable with figures published in the November 1942 or earlier issues of the Monthly Labor Review. Formerly, weekly earnings for the groups were computed by dividing total weekly pay roll by total employment, without any formal weighting of figures for the component industries.

INDEXES OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS

Employment and pay-roll indexes, as well as average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings for July, August, September 1943, where availvble, are presented in tables 3, 5, and 6.

The revised manufacturing indexes and aggregates in tables 2 and 3 are not comparable with the indexes published in the November 1942 or earlier issues of the Monthly Labor Review, as a result of changes in definitions, a change in the index base period, and adjustments in levels. Revised figures for the major manufacturing groups are available in mimeographed form by months from January 1939


EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS
ALL MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES
1939 = 100
INDEX
450
400
350
300
250
200
150
100
50
0
PAY ROLLS
EMPLOYMENT
1919 1920 1921 1922 1923 1924 1925 1926 1927 1928 1929 1930 1931 1932 1933 1934 1935 1936 1937 1938 1939 1940 1941 1942 1943 1944 1945
UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS
WAGE EARNERS AND WAGE EARNER PAY ROLL

560488—43——14

through October 1942 and for individual manufacturing industries from January 1939 through August 1942.

The figures relating to all manufacturing industries combined, to the durable- and nondurable-goods divisions, and to the major industry groups, have been adjusted to conform to levels indicated by final 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 released by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. The Bureau of Employment Security data referred to are (a) employment totals reported by employers under State unemployment-compensation programs, and (b) estimates of the number of employees not reported under the programs of some of these States, which do not cover small establishments. The latter estimates were obtained from tabulations prepared by the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance, which obtains reports from all employers regardless of size of establishment.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries* [1]

Industry [2]	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	September 1943	August 1943	July 1943	September 1942
All manufacturing	13,946	14,003	13,911	13,079
Durable goods	8,330	8,321	8,296	7,313
Nondurable goods	5,616	5,682	5,615	5,766
Durable goods				
Iron and steel and their products	1,721	1,718	1,715	1,621
Blast furnaces, steel works and rolling mills	511.7	514.9	517.7	532.1
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	78.4	79 9	80.9	88.8
Malleable-iron castings	25 7	26.0	26.2	26.9
Steel castings	81.6	83.7	84.1	78.4
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	15.1	15.3	15.6	20.1
Tin cans and other tinware	34.9	37.0	35.2	35.1
Wire drawn from purchased rods	35.4	35.6	35.7	33.1
Wirework	32.9	32.6	32.8	30.9
Cutlery and edge tools	21.5	21.6	21.4	20.1
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	27 0	27.4	27.6	26.5
Hardware	45.5	45.8	45.7	42.4
Plumbers' supplies	23.1	23.2	23.2	19.6
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	56.9	55.9	54.8	45.6
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	59.1	59.5	59.2	52.0
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	91.1	91.7	91.2	74.7
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	71.7	71 9	69.7	65.0
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding and trim [3]	13.2	13.3	13.2	10.2
Bolts, nuts, washers and rivets	29.5	29.7	29.2	25.4
Forgings, iron and steel	40.0	39.8	40.1	36.3
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted	26.7	26.7	26.8	18.7
Screw-machine products and wood screws [3]	48.8	49.4	49.9	47.4
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	8.5	8.4	8.6	6.9
Electrical machinery	725	717	714	586
Machinery, except electrical	1,248	1,251	1,251	1,126
Machinery and machine-shop products	495.5	496.9	494.5	440.1
Tractors	55.3	54.1	52.3	45.2
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	40.4	39.4	38.7	31.7
Machine tools [4]	100.9	106.0	110.5	118.6
Textile machinery	28.2	28.1	28.4	29.4
Pumps and pumping equipment	78.3	77.9	76.6	67.9
Typewriters	11.6	11.6	11.9	12.2
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	35.8	34.8	34.9	28.7
Washing machines, wringers, and driers, domestic	14.5	14.2	14.1	9.5
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	10.7	10.4	10.7	10.4
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	56.4	55.9	54.5	37.7
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	2,306	2,304	2,306	1,752
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts [3]	9.9	9.9	9.8	9.3
Automobiles	738	714	694	556
Nonferrous metals and their products	417	415	414	390
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	46.8	46.5	46.8	38.5
Clocks and watches	25.1	25.4	24.8	26.0

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners in the Manufacturing Industries*—Con.

Industry [2]	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	September 1943	August 1943	July 1943	September 1942
Durable goods—Continued				
Nonferrous metals and their products—Continued.				
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	15.3	15.7	15.8	16.6
Silverware and plated ware	11.6	11.8	11.8	11.6
Lighting equipment	25.5	24.6	24.4	21.1
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	28.2	29.1	30.3	28.0
Lumber and timber basic products	467	482	484	546
Sawmills and logging camps	256.1	264.2	264.5	302.4
Planing and plywood mills	78.7	81.3	82.7	89.2
Furniture and finished lumber products	356	362	360	367
Mattresses and bedsprings	19.3	18.8	18.3	15.5
Furniture	167.0	169.6	168.6	170.7
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	29.1	29.9	29.4	32.5
Caskets and other morticians' goods	11.6	11.7	11.8	11.6
Wood preserving	10.0	10.5	10.6	12.5
Wood, turned and shaped	21.5	22.2	22.7	23.5
Stone, clay, and glass products	352	358	358	369
Glass and glassware	89.5	89.4	88.4	83.0
Glass products made from purchased glass	10.8	11.1	11.4	11.4
Cement	22.8	23.8	24.1	30.3
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	48.0	50.1	51.1	63.2
Pottery and related products	42.4	42.6	42.2	44.4
Gypsum	4.5	4.5	4.6	4.6
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	11.1	11.1	11.0	10.9
Lime	9.2	9.2	9.5	10.3
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	12.3	12.5	12.3	13.6
Abrasives	23.9	24.6	24.5	17.7
Asbestos products	21.7	22.0	22.3	21.4
Nondurable goods				
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,185	1,204	1,219	1,272
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	471.0	478.2	484.2	505.6
Cotton smallwares	15.7	16.2	16.6	17.8
Silk and rayon goods	93.9	94.7	95.0	98.1
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	160.3	161.6	164.8	179.5
Hosiery	113.2	115.2	115.6	123.4
Knitted cloth	11.5	11.6	11.7	11.8
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	31.9	32.9	32.9	29.8
Knitted underwear	39.4	40.9	41.7	44.5
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	65.2	66.1	66.8	68.7
Carpets and rugs, wool	21.1	21.9	22.4	23.0
Hats, fur-felt	9.9	9.9	9.8	8.9
Jute goods, except felts	3.6	3.7	3.7	3.7
Cordage and twine	16.4	16.8	17.2	16.0
Apparel and other finished textile products	822	834	833	907
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	221.2	224.5	227.7	246.0
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	56.5	57.9	59.3	66.5
Underwear and neckwear, men's	12.7	13.0	13.1	13.6
Work shirts	17.8	18.1	18.3	18.8
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	231.2	234.0	229.2	260.2
Corsets and allied garments	16.0	16.0	16.0	17.3
Millinery	19.3	19.8	18.4	22.3
Handkerchiefs	3.6	3.6	3.7	4.3
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	15.9	16.0	16.6	16.4
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc	13.4	13.9	14.2	16.3
Textile bags	13.9	14.4	14.4	15.2
Leather and leather products	315	325	330	357
Leather	41.9	43.4	45.1	48.3
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	16.4	16.8	17.1	17.9
Boots and shoes	178.1	182.8	184.2	199.8
Leather gloves and mittens	13.7	13.8	14.4	14.4
Trunks and suitcases	12.0	13.0	13.6	16.1
Food	1,104	1,110	1,019	1,210
Slaughtering and meat packing	159.3	162.7	161.2	177.5
Butter	22.4	23.7	23.9	22.3
Condensed and evaporated milk	13.4	14.2	14.6	13.6
Ice cream	15.9	17.7	17.9	17.3
Flour	28.9	28.6	28.2	25.7
Feeds, prepared	21.4	21.6	21.7	19.6
Cereal preparations	10.1	10.0	10.0	8.9

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners in the Manufacturing Industries*—Con.

Industry [2]	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	September 1943	August 1943	July 1943	September 1942
Nondurable goods—Continued				
Food—Continued.				
Baking	250.5	251.4	253.0	262.0
Sugar refining, cane	14.7	14.5	14.9	12.1
Sugar, beet	7.7	5.3	5.0	9.9
Confectionery	53.6	52.9	51.7	60.4
Beverages, nonalcoholic	29.5	30.6	30.2	25.8
Malt liquors	48.0	48.8	48.4	44.5
Canning and preserving [3]	249.2	247.2	161.8	322.3
Tobacco manufactures	88	88	89	98
Cigarettes	34.4	34.4	33.2	33.8
Cigars	40.1	40.3	41.8	50.1
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	8.3	8.2	8.1	8.0
Paper and allied products	311	315	316	297
Paper and pulp	148.5	150.4	149.9	150.8
Paper goods, other	47.2	47.9	48.5	44.2
Envelopes	10.2	10.4	10.4	9.5
Paper bags	12.3	12.7	12.3	11.9
Paper boxes	83.5	84.4	84.8	71.6
Printing, publishing, and allied products	330	337	339	323
Newspapers and periodicals	112.4	112.0	112.0	115.6
Printing, book and job	128.8	134.0	134.7	123.1
Lithographing	25.0	25.4	25.8	23.1
Bookbinding	28.8	30.0	30.2	26.8
Chemicals and allied products	736	741	745	649
Paints, varnishes, and colors	29.5	30.0	30.0	28.9
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	46.2	46.6	46.6	38.1
Perfumes and cosmetics	10.6	11.0	11.5	10.5
Soap	13.2	13.0	12.8	13.9
Rayon and allied products	52.4	52.7	52.6	51.5
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	119.0	117.8	117.0	110.7
Compressed and liquefied gases	6.3	6.4	6.4	6.4
Cottonseed oil	20.4	13.2	12.0	19.2
Fertilizers	19.8	18.8	17.9	19.3
Products of petroleum and coal	126	127	126	128
Petroleum refining	82.3	82.6	82.0	80.3
Coke and byproducts	24.0	24.4	24.6	27.1
Paving materials	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.8
Roofing materials	9.7	9.8	9.7	10.3
Rubber products	195	194	192	164
Rubber tires and inner tubes	91.3	89.4	87.5	70.6
Rubber boots and shoes	21.4	22.2	22.1	20.5
Rubber goods, other	72.8	72.7	73.1	64.5
Miscellaneous industries	404	407	407	361
Photographic apparatus	30.7	30.7	30.6	24.4
Pianos, organs, and parts	10.4	10.4	10.3	6.2
Games, toys, and dolls	15.7	16.1	15.9	14.9
Buttons	10.1	10.5	10.8	12.6

[1] Estimates for the major industry groups have been adjusted to final data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency, and are not comparable with data in issues of the Monthly Labor Review prior to March 1943. Comparable series for earlier months are available upon request. Estimates for individual industries have been adjusted to levels indicated by the 1939 Census of Manufactures, but not to Federal Security Agency data. For this reason, together with the fact that this Bureau has not prepared estimates for certain industries, and does not publish wage earners in war industries, the sum of the individual industry estimates will not agree with totals shown for the major industry groups.

[2] Unpublished information concerning the following war industries may be obtained by authorized agencies upon request: Aircraft engines; aircraft and parts, excluding engines; alloying; aluminum manufactures; ammunition; cars, electric- and steam-railroad; communication equipment; electrical equipment; engines and turbines; explosives and safety fuses; fire extinguishers; firearms; fireworks; locomotives; machine-tool accessories; optical instruments and opthalmic goods; professional and scientific instruments and fire control equipment; radios and phonographs; and shipbuilding.

[3] Revisions have been made as follows in the data published for earlier months:

Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim.—June 1943 wage earners to 12.7.

Screw-machine products and wood screws.—September 1942 to June 1943 wage earners to 47.4, 48.5, 49.0, 49.1, 49.4, 50.2, 50.0, 49.7, 49.8, and 50.4.

Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts.—September 1942 to June 1943 wage earners to 9.3, 9.0, 9.2, 9.3, 9.6, 10.0, 10.1, 10.0, 9.9, and 9.7.

Canning and preserving.—June 1943 wage earners to 109.1.

[4] Data for earlier months back to January 1939 published in September 1943 issue of Monthly Labor Review (p. 485), or may be obtained in mimeographed form upon request.

Not all industries in each major industry group are represented in the tables, since minor industries are not canvassed by the Bureau, and others cannot be shown because of their close relationship to the war program. Furthermore, no attempt has been made to allocate among the separate industries the adjustment to unemployment-compensation data. Hence, the estimates for individual industries within a group will not in general add to the total estimate for that group.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries*[1]

[1939 average=100]

Industry[2]	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	Sept. 1943	Aug. 1943	July 1943	Sept. 1942	Sept. 1943	Aug. 1943	July 1943	Sept. 1942
All manufacturing	170.2	170.9	169.8	159.6	328.3	322.4	315.6	261.8
Durable goods	230.7	230.4	229.7	202.5	461.3	448.5	439.7	352.4
Nondurable goods	122.6	124.0	122.6	125.9	198.3	199.1	194.2	173.3
Durable goods								
Iron and steel and their products	173.6	173.3	172.9	163.5	312.8	308.1	299.6	255.4
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	131.7	132.6	133.3	137.0	232.7	229.9	223.7	199.7
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	134.2	136.7	138.5	152.1	250.5	253.0	246.2	242.5
Malleable-iron castings	142.4	144.0	145.0	148.9	277.0	267.0	257.2	234.4
Steel castings	271.2	278.2	279.5	260.5	475.8	484.1	478.2	419.8
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	91.3	92.3	94.4	121.7	165.3	162.5	161.8	191.5
Tin cans and other tinware	109.7	116.5	110.7	110.6	178.2	186.9	172.6	148.9
Wire drawn from purchased rods	161.3	161.8	162.6	150.4	262.8	249.0	247.6	212.7
Wirework	108.2	107.2	108.1	101.7	203.3	200.9	203.0	165.2
Cutlery and edge tools	139.4	140.2	139.1	130.6	281.8	277.4	271.1	224.2
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	176.4	178.7	180.1	173.3	324.6	328.8	319.3	289.8
Hardware	127.7	128.4	128.1	118.8	254.0	250.9	241.5	194.6
Plumbers' supplies	93.7	94.0	94.1	79.5	156.0	160.3	159.4	113.7
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	123.3	121.2	118.8	98.8	218.3	211.3	198.4	143.6
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	194.9	196.5	195.3	171.4	361.6	350.7	360.9	298.3
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	164.1	165.1	164.2	134.5	312.9	304.5	297.0	208.9
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	201.8	202.4	196.2	182.9	372.1	372.6	356.4	296.7
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim[3]	170.7	171.7	170.8	132.1	325.2	302.4	299.7	212.8
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	206.4	207.6	204.2	177.7	384.8	385.3	359.4	291.6
Forgings, iron and steel	260.0	259.1	261.1	236.4	488.8	483.2	456.3	390.1
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted	319.6	319.5	320.4	222.9	567.7	586.1	592.0	420.6
Screw-machine products and wood screws[3]	288.5	292.0	294.9	279.8	549.0	550.9	541.5	463.5
Steel barrels, kegs and drums	140.1	139.0	142.4	114.2	262.6	270.3	249.1	169.1
Electrical machinery	279.8	276.7	275.5	226.3	487.7	475.3	462.8	368.6
Machinery, except electrical	236.2	236.8	236.8	213.0	435.2	423.9	420.1	352.3
Machinery and machine-shop products	244.9	245.6	244.4	217.5	446.3	429.9	425.5	354.8
Tractors	176.7	172.9	167.1	144.6	269.5	263.0	254.0	198.4
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	145.3	141.7	139.1	114.1	283.4	267.4	255.7	163.5
Machine tools[4]	275.5	289.5	301.8	323.7	455.3	470.2	491.2	510.4
Textile machinery	128.7	128.4	129.6	134.0	227.4	226.7	223.2	221.1
Pumps and pumping equipment	322.9	321.3	316.0	280.3	678.2	657.1	629.9	510.8
Typewriters	71.7	71.4	73.4	75.3	143.4	137.3	142.8	124.9
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	181.8	177.0	177.4	145.8	366.1	338.9	337.8	255.9
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	193.6	190.0	188.4	127.0	333.4	320.7	298.9	190.3
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	136.7	133.3	136.7	132.0	300.2	278.1	283.7	236.4
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	160.6	159.1	154.9	107.3	288.3	273.5	260.2	157.1
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	1453.0	1451.7	1452.6	1104.0	2945.8	2811.3	2790.6	2053.3
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts[3]	142.5	142.1	140.1	133.7	252.1	254.4	237.6	215.6
Automobiles	183.4	177.5	172.6	138.2	338.7	324.2	314.3	225.2
Nonferrous metals and their products	181.8	180.9	180.6	170.3	336.8	325.4	321.1	273.3
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	169.2	168.3	169.3	139.3	304.7	298.8	294.5	202.8
Clocks and watches	123.9	125.0	122.3	128.1	242.3	236.4	226.2	222.8
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers, findings	105.6	108.8	109.2	115.0	158.7	156.9	151.2	155.2
Silverware and plated ware	95.8	97.7	97.1	96.0	161.1	169.0	164.8	138.5
Lighting equipment	124.7	119.9	119.1	102.8	223.0	209.7	202.5	158.5
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	150.2	155.4	161.8	149.5	273.6	268.0	267.3	217.1

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries*[1]—Continued

[1939 average=100]

Industry[2]	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	Sept. 1943	Aug. 1943	July 1943	Sept. 1942	Sept. 1943	Aug. 1943	July 1943	Sept. 1942
Durable goods—Continued								
Lumber and timber basic products	111.0	114.6	115.1	129.9	197.7	206.0	193.3	192.2
Sawmills and logging camps	88.9	91.7	91.8	105.0	162.1	169.0	156.2	158.4
Planing and plywood mills	108.3	111.9	113.8	122.8	175.7	182.9	179.3	168.1
Furniture and finished lumber products	108.6	110.4	109.8	112.0	183.2	185.5	178.6	158.1
Mattresses and bedsprings	104.9	102.5	99.9	84.7	167.0	163.0	155.5	104.6
Furniture	104.9	106.5	105.9	107.2	176.7	179.2	171.8	154.1
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	114.7	117.9	116.1	128.3	205.3	210.8	199.1	190.4
Caskets and other morticians' goods	93.2	94.3	94.6	93.4	143.2	145.5	148.3	113.8
Wood preserving	88.5	93.1	94.7	111.6	182.4	180.6	175.5	177.9
Wood, turned and shaped	98.0	100.8	103.0	107.1	161.1	167.0	165.6	150.4
Stone, clay, and glass products	119.8	121.8	122.1	125.8	188.5	192.3	184.4	168.4
Glass and glassware	128.2	128.1	126.6	118.9	193.5	193.2	181.9	147.1
Glass products made from purchased glass	107.5	111.3	114.0	113.8	160.5	166.9	165.0	141.7
Cement	95.7	100.0	101.3	127.3	139.9	148.2	144.9	168.7
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	84.5	88.2	90.0	111.4	128.3	136.7	134.5	152.0
Pottery and related products	128.0	128.6	127.6	134.0	186.6	190.2	179.3	172.5
Gypsum	90.2	92.2	94.2	92.7	147.8	160.6	160.9	131.5
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	136.7	136.5	136.0	134.3	230.3	224.6	199.7	184.4
Lime	96.8	97.7	100.3	109.3	172.0	181.1	173.2	163.1
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	66.6	67.7	66.5	73.7	89.5	92.7	87.1	85.2
Abrasives	308.8	317.4	316.2	228.3	494.4	498.4	481.3	338.6
Asbestos products	136.3	138.4	140.2	134.5	260.4	257.0	253.7	218.1
Nondurable goods								
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	103.6	105.2	106.5	111.2	172.0	173.2	173.0	166.8
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	118.9	120.8	122.3	127.7	204.8	203.6	207.0	208.2
Cotton smallwares	118.0	121.4	124.5	133.9	195.6	207.8	206.8	216.1
Silk and rayon goods	78.3	79.1	79.3	81.9	131.8	133.6	130.8	126.5
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	107.4	108.3	110.5	120.3	194.9	198.3	198.2	196.3
Hosiery	71.2	72.4	72.7	77.6	105.0	106.5	102.2	93.2
Knitted cloth	105.0	106.7	107.1	107.8	169.0	174.2	166.0	145.7
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	113.5	116.9	116.9	105.9	190.5	192.4	188.7	139.1
Knitted underwear	102.3	106.2	108.2	115.4	171.9	176.9	173.6	158.8
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	97.4	98.9	99.8	102.8	152.2	153.5	152.6	142.6
Carpets and rugs, wool	82.5	85.5	87.4	89.8	131.0	135.0	139.2	130.7
Hats, fur-felt	68.3	68.0	67.6	61.3	116.7	114.2	111.8	70.2
Jute goods, except felts	101.3	104.1	103.7	104.3	181.6	187.7	185.4	167.5
Cordage and twine	135.6	138.5	141.9	132.3	229.9	231.4	233.6	194.6
Apparel and other finished textile products	104.1	105.7	105.6	115.0	163.4	164.1	155.8	147.4
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	101.1	102.7	104.1	112.5	153.8	153.8	151.3	142.5
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	80.2	82.2	84.2	94.4	128.4	129.9	131.0	130.4
Underwear and neckwear, men's	78.8	80.7	81.0	84.5	139.7	142.6	136.0	115.2
Work shirts	132.2	134.7	136.4	140.0	221.4	225.2	216.8	214.2
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	85.1	86.1	84.4	92.1	136.1	137.5	125.3	115.8
Corsets and allied garments	85.5	85.4	85.0	91.9	138.4	130.8	128.5	116.3
Millinery	79.5	81.5	75.7	91.6	113.7	122.3	98.3	120.7
Handkerchiefs	73.7	74.2	76.5	89.6	117.1	123.6	123.0	121.9
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	94.2	94.8	98.3	97.1	163.3	150.1	150.5	132.6
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc	125.8	130.8	133.2	153.2	228.0	216.5	225.3	224.6
Textile bags	116.3	120.1	119.8	127.1	179.2	180.4	179.0	164.7
Leather and leather products	90.8	93.6	95.0	102.8	143.1	147.8	145.9	145.6
Leather	88.6	91.8	95.5	102.2	135.3	137.9	141.7	137.7
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	86.8	89.4	90.8	95.1	129.5	133.6	132.5	126.5
Boots and shoes	81.7	83.8	84.5	91.7	131.1	135.4	131.4	134.9
Leather gloves and mittens	136.8	138.5	144.5	144.2	211.6	223.8	222.0	177.0
Trunks and suitcases	143.8	156.3	163.6	193.1	211.7	232.5	238.3	227.9
Food	129.2	129.9	119.3	141.6	185.1	188.2	175.9	173.2
Slaughtering and meat packing	132.2	135.0	133.7	147.3	191.3	201.6	203.9	173.0
Butter	124.9	132.2	133.2	124.5	180.3	191.7	186.9	158.7
Condensed and evaporated milk	138.0	146.5	150.1	140.1	208.1	222.2	231.8	186.3
Ice cream	101.3	112.5	113.8	110.2	132.7	153.5	151.6	131.6
Flour	116.6	115.4	113.9	103.7	179.5	183.7	170.3	137.8
Feeds, prepared	138.8	140.3	140.7	127.5	221.0	222.5	218.3	182.5
Cereal preparations	135.3	133.4	133.5	118.9	227.1	230.3	224.0	149.2
Baking	108.6	109.0	109.7	113.6	155.3	152.5	153.4	140.7

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries*[1]—Continued

[1939 average=100]

Industry [2]	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	Sept. 1943	Aug. 1943	July 1943	Sept. 1942	Sept. 1943	Aug. 1943	July 1943	Sept. 1942
Nondurable goods—Continued								
Food—Continued.								
Sugar refining, cane	103.8	102.3	105.5	85.6	166.3	154.7	157.5	119.8
Sugar, beet	73.6	51.1	48.0	94.6	100.3	73.7	67.8	118.9
Confectionery	107.8	106.3	103.9	121.5	165.4	154.5	149.1	155.4
Beverages, nonalcoholic	138.9	143.8	142.2	121.2	171.6	182.0	178.4	137.6
Malt liquors	132.9	135.3	134.2	123.3	186.5	192.8	189.9	152.9
Canning and preserving [3]	185.3	183.8	120.3	239.7	308.1	322.0	200.7	373.4
Tobacco manufactures	94.7	94.8	95.1	105.2	155.0	151.1	153.5	144.1
Cigarettes	125.4	125.3	121.2	123.3	182.1	186.6	182.3	167.3
Cigars	78.8	79.1	82.2	98.5	139.5	128.5	137.7	131.9
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	90.5	89.6	87.8	87.4	132.1	131.8	126.9	120.4
Paper and allied products	117.2	118.8	118.9	111.9	176.6	181.9	176.3	147.0
Paper and pulp	108.0	109.4	109.1	109.7	168.4	175.2	168.8	148.5
Paper goods, other	125.4	127.3	129.0	117.5	177.8	183.3	180.6	142.7
Envelopes	117.7	120.1	119.9	109.1	170.1	170.8	167.2	131.9
Paper bags	111.0	114.5	111.3	107.5	175.0	176.7	175.3	146.5
Paper boxes	120.8	122.0	122.7	103.5	177.7	180.1	174.2	131.8
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	100.7	102.9	103.4	98.5	128.9	128.8	127.0	111.2
Newspapers and periodicals	94.7	94.4	94.4	97.4	114.5	112.7	112.4	107.8
Printing, book and job	102.0	106.1	106.6	97.5	133.1	134.8	132.7	110.3
Lithographing	96.3	97.8	99.2	88.7	126.5	127.4	122.4	98.3
Bookbinding	111.6	116.3	117.2	104.0	179.8	179.4	175.5	134.8
Chemicals and allied products	255.4	257.0	258.6	225.1	438.4	435.8	435.7	338.5
Paints, varnishes, and colors	104.8	106.5	106.8	102.5	156.2	159.7	157.5	128.8
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	168.6	170.1	170.1	139.1	241.0	238.7	231.6	172.9
Perfumes and cosmetics	102.4	106.3	110.6	101.7	144.2	142.0	143.1	120.7
Soap	97.4	95.8	94.3	102.5	156.3	149.1	139.1	133.2
Rayon and allied products	108.5	109.1	108.9	106.6	170.3	168.4	168.6	146.2
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	171.1	169.3	168.2	159.2	285.5	281.0	277.0	222.1
Compressed and liquefied gases	159.4	162.2	161.7	161.9	266.3	274.2	270.1	229.3
Cottonseed oil	134.2	87.1	78.7	126.5	249.4	150.4	133.0	179.3
Fertilizers	105.3	100.3	95.3	103.0	214.2	198.2	188.9	164.6
Products of petroleum and coal	119.0	119.7	119.1	120.8	195.0	197.1	190.3	160.5
Petroleum refining	113.0	113.4	112.6	110.3	182.4	184.8	179.9	144.3
Coke and byproducts	110.5	112.4	113.3	124.7	187.1	185.4	175.4	173.1
Paving materials	70.9	67.0	66.0	74.1	122.8	116.2	107.3	113.0
Roofing materials	120.0	122.3	120.5	127.9	205.5	212.7	202.2	186.5
Rubber products	161.2	160.3	158.9	135.3	273.4	258.4	256.1	189.9
Rubber tires and inner tubes	168.6	165.2	161.7	130.5	277.2	253.8	253.3	178.6
Rubber boots and shoes	144.1	150.0	149.3	138.0	246.8	250.0	246.5	206.4
Rubber goods, other	140.6	140.5	141.3	124.6	237.5	232.0	228.1	177.1
Miscellaneous industries	165.1	166.4	166.4	147.6	297.1	294.5	291.4	227.4
Photographic apparatus	177.6	178.0	177.3	141.0	270.9	268.9	264.4	199.9
Pianos, organs and parts	137.1	136.0	135.0	82.0	260.9	258.0	257.2	128.7
Games, toys and dolls	84.1	86.1	85.1	80.0	141.7	145.3	132.5	113.8
Buttons	91.9	95.4	98.9	115.0	164.3	171.2	169.1	175.4

[1] Indexes for the major industry groups have been adjusted to final data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency, and are not comparable with data in issues of the Monthly Labor Review prior to March 1943. Comparable series for earlier months are available upon request. Indexes for individual industries have been adjusted to levels indicated by the 1939 Census of Manufactures, but not to Federal Security Agency data.

[2] Unpublished information concerning the following war industries may be obtained by authorized agencies upon request: Aircraft engines; aircraft and parts, excluding engines; alloying; aluminum manufactures; ammunition; cars, electric- and steam-railroad; communication equipment; electrical equipment; engines and turbines; explosives and safety fuses; fire extinguishers; firearms; fireworks; locomotives; machine tool accessories; optical instruments and ophthalmic goods; professional and scientific instruments and fire control equipment; radios and phonographs; and shipbuilding.

[3] Revisions have been made as follows in the data published for earlier months:

Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim.—June 1943 employment index to 164.4.

Screw-machine products and wood screws.—September 1942 to June 1943 employment indexes to 279.8, 286.6, 289.3, 290.3, 292.0, 296.8, 295,3. 293.6, 294.4, and 297.6.

Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts.—September 1942 to June 1943 employment indexes to 133.7, 129.1, 131.9, 133.8, 138.4, 143.6, 145.5, 144.0, 142.2, and 139.2; September and October 1942 pay-roll indexes to 215.6 and 218.6.

Canning and preserving.—June 1943 employment and pay-roll indexes to 81.2 and 137.2, respectively.

[4] Comparable indexes for earlier months back to January 1939 available in mimeographed form upon request.

TABLE 4.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries*

Industry	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	September 1943	August 1943	July 1943	September 1942
Anthracite mining	69.3	69.7	71.4	76.6
Bituminous-coal mining	374	376	379	432
Metal mining	95.8	93.1	95.4	104.6
Iron	32.5	33.0	33.8	33.4
Copper	31.5	29.0	29.9	30.1
Lead and zinc	18.8	18.2	18.3	18.6
Gold and silver	6.5	6.4	6.7	15.7
Miscellaneous metal mining	6.5	6.5	6.7	6.8
Hotels (year-round)[1]	348	348	347	329
Power laundries	250	257	268	274
Dyeing and cleaning	80.1	80.6	84.5	82.4
Class I steam railroads [2]	1,374	1,379	1,388	1,322

[1] Data include salaried personnel.
[2] Source—Interstate Commerce Commission. Data include salaried personnel.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries*

[1939 average=100] [1]

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	September 1943	August 1943	July 1943	September 1942	September 1943	August 1943	July 1943	September 1942
Coal mining:								
Anthracite	83.7	84.1	86.2	92.5	142.6	148.9	133.1	128.1
Bituminous	101.0	101.4	102.2	116.6	203.3	203.8	190.0	175.3
Metal mining	108.5	105.5	108.1	118.5	170.6	169.2	164.3	163.0
Iron	161.3	163.9	167.2	166.0	260.5	273.0	261.7	232.1
Copper	132.0	121.8	125.6	126.4	215.6	204.8	202.3	184.5
Lead and zinc	121.1	116.8	117.7	119.7	209.8	201.9	195.3	186.2
Gold and silver	26.3	25.9	27.2	63.4	34.1	34.5	33.0	72.7
Miscellaneous	164.3	164.2	169.8	169.4	266.5	268.0	262.2	244.6
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	95.6	98.1	98.8	114.5	168.0	174.8	168.9	175.4
Crude-petroleum production [2]	82.2	82.8	82.3	85.0	125.1	120.1	120.3	106.4
Public utilities:								
Telephone and telegraph	127.0	127.5	126.8	123.6	149.8	149.1	148.2	136.5
Electric light and power	85.5	86.1	86.3	94.6	111.4	111.9	110.5	112.0
Street railways and busses	118.1	117.6	117.7	109.7	157.9	162.1	156.1	134.7
Wholesale trade	93.9	95.3	96.0	100.2	127.9	129.5	127.1	120.6
Retail trade	97.4	94.9	96.6	101.2	119.9	119.7	119.9	114.4
Food	104.1	102.5	104.2	109.7	128.7	131.2	131.6	126.6
General merchandise	110.6	105.4	108.6	112.6	130.5	127.8	131.4	125.2
Apparel	98.4	97.5	99.4	107.0	133.6	122.9	122.8	120.3
Furniture and housefurnishings	65.5	66.4	66.7	78.0	85.3	87.3	86.3	92.0
Automotive	62.5	63.5	63.6	64.5	85.1	86.8	84.8	77.9
Lumber and building materials	92.2	92.8	92.6	97.0	126.2	125.0	122.7	120.9
Hotels (year-round) [3]	108.0	107.8	107.6	102.1	143.9	141.0	139.7	121.3
Power laundries	110.5	113.8	118.7	121.5	146.2	147.3	152.4	141.1
Dyeing and cleaning	118.7	119.4	125.2	122.1	170.6	164.3	170.6	147.1
Class I steam railroads [4]	139.3	139.7	140.5	133.9	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]
Water transportation [6]	170.3	162.1	152.5	86.9	384.4	363.2	345.3	189.5

[1] Mimeographed report showing revised data (1939=100) January 1939-December 1942 for each industry available on request.
[2] Does not include well drilling or rig building.
[3] Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, tips, not included. Data include salaried personnel.
[4] Source—Interstate Commerce Commission. Data include salaried personnel.
[5] Not available.
[6] Based on estimates prepared by the U. S. Maritime Commission covering employment on steam and motor merchant vessels of 1,000 gross tons or over in deep-sea trade only.

HOURS AND EARNINGS

Average weekly hours and earnings and average hourly earnings in July, August, and September 1943 are given in table 6.

TABLE 6.—*Hours and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*

MANUFACTURING

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	September 1943	August 1943	July 1943	September 1943	August 1943	July 1943	September 1943	August 1943	July 1943
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
All manufacturing	$44.39	$43.52	$42.76	44.7	45.1	44.4	99.3	96.5	96.3
Durable goods	51.06	49.61	48.76	46.5	46.8	46.0	109.8	106.0	106.0
Nondurable goods	34.73	34.47	34.01	42.2	42.5	42.2	82.3	81.1	80.6
Durable goods									
Iron and steel and their products	49.05	48.43	47.09	46.1	46.7	45.5	106.4	103.7	103.5
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	52.67	51.59	50.01	45.3	45.7	43.9	116.4	113.0	114.0
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	47.72	47.34	45.46	46.6	47.4	45.9	103.6	101.0	100.2
Malleable-iron castings	48.14	46.00	44.01	46.7	46.4	44.8	104.0	99.2	98.3
Steel castings	48.68	48.22	47.42	45.2	46.0	44.9	107.6	104.7	105.6
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	38.95	37.86	36.80	44.8	44.7	42.9	86.8	84.9	85.7
Tin cans and other tinware	37.45	37.01	35.95	43.0	44.0	43.7	86.8	84.0	82.2
Wirework	47.53	47.14	47.09	46.7	47.7	47.6	101.3	98.7	98.8
Cutlery and edge tools	43.06	42.15	41.53	46.1	46.2	46.0	93.4	91.2	90.2
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	44.53	44.45	42.92	47.5	47.9	46.9	93.9	93.0	91.7
Hardware	44.06	42.90	41.40	47.4	48.2	46.3	92.1	89.0	89.3
Plumbers' supplies	43.37	44.39	43.83	45.5	46.8	46.1	94.7	94.2	95.2
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	44.17	43.50	41.69	45.9	46.4	45.4	96.4	93.8	91.9
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	47.93	45.93	47.59	47.8	47.6	48.3	100.3	96.6	98.6
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	45.37	43.89	43.05	45.7	46.0	45.2	98.9	95.0	94.8
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	52.23	52.16	51.25	47.9	49.0	48.7	109.0	106.4	105.1
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim [2]	51.47	47.57	47.53	49.7	48.4	48.2	103.6	98.3	98.6
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets [2]	47.05	46.95	44.55	46.9	47.8	45.7	100.7	98.3	97.4
Forgings, iron and steel [2]	55.89	55.78	52.12	46.8	47.7	45.5	120.6	116.9	114.5
Screw machine products and wood screws [2]	48.72	48.26	47.03	49.3	49.7	49.3	98.8	97.1	95.4
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums [2]	41.37	42.64	38.29	43.0	44.8	41.6	95.6	95.3	92.1
Firearms	57.96	57.34	55.56	47.5	48.1	46.5	121.5	119.3	119.5
Electrical machinery	46.42	45.68	44.81	46.7	46.9	46.2	99.4	97.4	97.0
Electrical equipment	48.60	48.17	47.01	47.0	47.4	46.6	103.4	101.8	101.0
Radios and phonographs [3]	41.35	39.34	38.93	46.4	46.2	45.8	89.2	85.2	85.4
Cummunications equipment	42.24	41.43	41.21	45.7	45.8	45.4	92.5	90.5	90.7
Machinery, except electrical	53.55	51.92	51.13	48.9	48.8	48.1	109.5	106.4	106.3
Machinery and machine-shop products	52.72	50.64	50.30	48.8	48.4	48.0	108.4	104.5	104.8
Engines and turbines	58.65	57.49	57.62	49.5	49.7	49.8	118.9	116.0	116.2
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	52.06	50.17	48.95	46.8	47.1	45.9	110.7	106.4	106.7
Tractors	51.14	50.99	50.97	45.9	46.5	46.5	111.3	109.6	109.7
Machine tools	53.43	52.49	52.62	49.8	49.7	49.5	107.2	105.6	106.4
Textile machinery [3]	46.04	46.14	45.13	48.9	49.1	48.7	94.6	93.9	92.7
Typewriters	48.09	46.26	46.81	48.8	47.6	49.0	98.5	97.1	95.5
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	60.94	57.93	57.58	50.6	49.7	49.6	121.7	117.4	117.4
Washing machines, wringers, and driers, domestic [2]	45.53	44.68	41.94	45.9	46.7	44.7	99.2	95.6	93.8
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial [2]	59.29	56.30	56.05	52.5	52.8	52.8	113.4	107.2	106.9
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment [3]	51.15	48.97	47.88	48.1	47.3	46.5	106.2	103.6	102.9
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	59.22	56.35	55.88	47.3	47.0	46.8	125.2	119.9	119.4
Locomotives	60.09	59.29	59.65	47.8	48.0	48.3	125.6	123.4	123.5
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	47.42	51.06	48.12	43.0	46.1	43.5	109.9	110.3	110.3
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	52.56	49.26	48.82	46.7	46.1	45.5	112.5	107.0	107.3

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—*Hours and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries* - Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [2]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	September 1943	August 1943	July 1943	September 1943	August 1943	July 1943	September 1943	August 1943	July 1943
Durable goods—Continued									
Transportation equipment—Continued.							*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Aircraft engines	$61.14	$58.41	$58.05	47.2	46.5	46.3	129.5	125.6	125.5
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	63.48	61.02	60.55	47.8	47.8	47.9	133.6	127.8	126.4
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts [3]	48.93	49.53	46.92	46.4	48.6	46.6	105.5	101.9	100.7
Automobiles	58.06	57.41	57.18	45.9	47.1	46.0	126.5	121.9	124.3
Nonferrous metals and their products	48.91	47.39	46.79	46.8	46.6	46.1	104.5	101.7	101.5
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	48.27	47.60	46.64	45.7	46.2	45.1	106.5	104.2	104.4
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals except aluminum	53.95	52.15	52.63	48.0	47.7	48.1	112.4	109.5	110.0
Clocks and watches [3]	40.58	39.25	38.43	45.4	45.1	44.6	89.8	87.2	86.3
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	38.61	37.19	35.69	44.5	43.7	42.7	87.0	84.8	83.0
Silverware and plated ware	44.34	45.21	44.37	44.5	46.7	46.0	99.3	97.0	96.6
Lighting equipment [3]	46.95	45.55	44.26	45.5	45.7	44.3	102.6	99.8	99.8
Aluminum manufactures	50.71	49.01	49.02	47.8	47.2	46.9	106.8	104.6	104.4
Lumber and timber basic products	33.41	33.72	31.51	43.5	45.2	42.7	76.8	74.6	73.8
Sawmills and logging camps	32.65	32.99	30.50	43.0	45.0	42.1	75.9	73.3	72.5
Planing and plywood mills [3]	35.68	35.84	34.70	44.8	45.8	44.7	79.6	78.6	77.9
Furniture and finished lumber products	33.57	33.45	32.48	43.6	44.6	43.6	77.0	75.0	74.5
Furniture [3]	34.23	34.29	33.05	43.3	44.5	43.4	79.3	77.1	76.5
Caskets and other mortician's goods [3]	35.57	35.73	36.36	44.2	45.4	46.0	80.4	78.8	79.3
Wood preserving [3]	33.07	31.14	29.76	45.0	43.9	42.4	73.5	71.0	70.2
Stone, clay, and glass products	36.93	37.11	35.49	42.3	43.5	41.8	87.3	85.3	84.9
Glass and glassware	38.18	38.13	36.15	40.8	42.1	39.8	93.2	90.4	91.1
Glass products made from purchased glass [3]	31.36	31.56	30.46	42.5	43.6	42.3	73.7	72.3	72.0
Cement	39.05	39.80	38.31	42.9	44.7	42.6	91.1	89.0	89.9
Brick, tile, and terra cotta [3]	30.80	31.23	30.28	40.2	41.3	40.1	76.0	75.0	74.8
Pottery and related products [3]	33.31	34.00	32.35	39.9	41.3	39.6	85.5	83.6	82.4
Gypsum [3]	42.52	45.21	44.67	47.4	50.2	49.9	89.8	90.1	89.5
Lime [3]	35.16	36.66	34.14	46.2	48.8	46.5	75.3	74.4	73.1
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	35.35	36.01	34.44	41.3	42.8	41.5	85.5	83.9	82.9
Abrasives [3]	45.05	44.19	42.83	46.9	46.6	46.6	96.1	94.9	91.9
Asbestos products	46.04	44.56	43.48	47.9	47.8	47.2	96.2	93.3	92.1
Nondurable goods									
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	27.68	27.46	27.16	41.0	41.3	40.9	67.5	66.5	66.4
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	24.60	24.03	24.14	41.1	41.0	40.9	59.9	58.6	59.0
Cotton smallwares	30.79	31.87	30.83	41.8	43.5	42.8	73.7	73.3	72.0
Silk and rayon goods	26.90	26.97	26.41	40.9	41.7	41.1	65.7	64.7	64.3
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	33.62	34.08	33.35	41.3	41.9	41.3	81.5	81.3	80.9
Hosiery	27.03	26.94	25.80	38.0	38.7	37.3	71.1	69.7	69.4
Knitted cloth	31.88	32.35	30.68	42.6	43.5	42.0	75.1	74.1	72.7
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	27.76	27.27	26.74	39.7	40.4	39.8	69.5	67.0	66.4
Knitted underwear	24.80	24.60	23.76	40.7	41.2	40.3	60.4	59.3	58.6
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	32.33	32.14	31.69	44.1	44.3	43.7	73.3	72.6	72.5
Carpets and rugs, wool	36.63	36.42	36.71	42.1	42.0	42.2	87.3	87.0	87.3
Hats, fur-felt	39.37	38.58	37.99	40.9	40.7	40.1	96.3	94.8	95.3
Jute goods, except felts [3]	31.91	32.10	31.77	43.4	44.3	44.4	73.6	72.4	71.6
Cordage and twine [3]	30.22	29.55	29.13	44.3	44.2	43.8	67.7	66.7	66.4
Apparel and other finished textile products	27.75	27.48	26.16	37.4	37.8	37.1	74.2	72.7	70.5
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	28.69	28.28	27.56	37.4	37.4	36.9	77.2	75.7	74.6
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	21.94	21.66	21.41	37.2	37.5	37.0	60.0	58.4	57.9
Underwear and neckwear, men's	24.14	24.11	22.93	36.6	37.5	36.1	65.9	64.4	63.6
Work shirts	18.48	18.45	17.47	38.0	37.8	36.2	48.7	48.6	48.0
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified [3]	33.70	33.63	31.34	36.5	37.3	36.3	90.3	88.4	84.3
Corsets and allied garments	28.39	26.81	26.35	41.1	40.7	40.5	69.2	66.1	65.2
Millinery	34.80	36.49	31.58	32.7	33.9	32.1	89.2	90.1	83.9
Handkerchiefs [3]	20.71	21.70	20.97	36.0	38.2	37.5	57.5	56.8	55.9

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—*Hours and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	September 1943	August 1943	July 1943	September 1943	August 1943	July 1943	September 1943	August 1943	July 1943
Nondurable goods—Continued									
Apparel and other finished textile products—Continued.							*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads [2]	$23.53	$21.49	$20.75	39.5	38.0	36.8	59.5	56.5	56.0
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc. [2]	32.00	29.24	29.79	42.4	41.1	42.0	76.8	71.9	71.8
Textile bags [2]	26.93	26.26	26.06	41.9	41.8	41.9	64.7	63.2	62.6
Leather and leather products	29.87	30.00	29.09	39.2	40.0	39.1	76.2	75.0	74.4
Leather	37.73	37.21	36.74	42.6	42.2	42.0	88.9	88.4	87.7
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings [2]	30.09	30.18	29.39	40.6	41.2	40.7	75.0	73.7	73.0
Boots and shoes	28.44	28.46	27.43	38.4	39.3	38.3	73.3	72.0	71.4
Leather gloves and mittens [2]	26.56	27.60	26.36	36.7	39.3	37.6	72.5	70.7	70.4
Trunks and suitcases [2]	31.01	31.34	30.67	40.4	41.8	41.4	76.7	74.4	73.2
Food	34.60	35.05	35.40	43.3	43.6	44.3	79.9	80.4	79.9
Slaughtering and meat packing	40.12	41.12	42.01	45.8	47.0	48.0	87.2	87.8	87.7
Butter	31.80	31.90	30.88	47.2	48.6	48.0	66.7	65.1	63.3
Condensed and evaporated milk [2]	34.37	34.48	35.25	48.8	49.7	51.2	70.5	69.4	68.8
Ice cream	35.79	37.15	36.59	45.8	48.5	47.9	74.8	74.5	73.0
Flour	38.74	39.94	37.67	48.2	49.7	47.8	80.6	80.5	78.9
Cereal preparations [2]	42.87	44.03	42.81	45.2	47.0	45.9	94.9	93.6	93.3
Baking	36.80	36.01	35.98	45.0	44.9	44.9	81.8	80.2	80.4
Sugar refining, cane	38.53	36.21	35.78	46.8	44.2	42.7	82.3	81.8	83.7
Sugar, beet	34.00	35.97	35.07	36.0	37.9	37.0	94.5	94.9	94.9
Confectionery	28.30	26.90	26.49	41.3	40.6	40.2	69.0	66.6	66.4
Beverages, nonalcoholic	32.93	33.42	33.21	43.7	45.1	45.0	75.5	74.6	74.2
Malt liquors	49.26	49.78	49.37	45.8	46.4	46.6	107.8	107.5	106.3
Canning and preserving	26.54	27.90	26.38	38.0	37.7	38.1	70.2	74.7	69.8
Tobacco manufactures	27.78	27.04	27.41	41.4	41.1	42.1	67.1	65.8	65.1
Cigarettes	31.15	31.72	32.03	41.5	43.6	44.5	74.3	72.7	72.0
Cigars	25.56	23.27	24.04	41.7	39.0	40.7	61.5	59.6	59.1
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	25.76	26.03	25.52	39.9	40.5	39.4	64.6	64.3	64.7
Paper and allied products	36.09	36.66	35.55	44.5	45.6	44.6	81.1	80.4	79.7
Paper and pulp	39.36	40.44	39.04	45.7	47.1	45.9	86.1	85.9	85.1
Envelopes [2]	34.79	34.15	33.48	44.6	44.6	44.2	77.9	76.6	75.8
Paper bags [2]	32.12	31.45	32.10	42.9	43.3	44.0	75 3	72.9	73.3
Paper boxes	32.33	32.39	31.34	43.0	44.0	43.0	75.2	73.8	73.1
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	41.81	40.78	40.08	40.4	40.7	40.2	103.5	100.2	99.7
Newspapers and periodicals	46.27	45.69	45.62	37.9	37.6	37.7	121.5	120.0	119.3
Printing, book and job	38.78	37.74	37.27	41.5	42.1	41.3	94.7	90.5	90.3
Lithographing [2]	42.77	42.40	40.18	42.5	43.3	41.8	100.7	98.0	96.2
Chemicals and allied products	42.91	42.41	42.13	45.7	45.7	45.3	93.9	92.8	93.0
Paints, varnishes, and colors	43.22	43.49	42.58	46.3	46.7	46.3	93.4	93.2	92.2
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	33.87	33.25	32.25	43.2	43.2	42.3	78.2	76.9	76.6
Soap	45.85	44.45	42.13	46.9	46.5	44.8	97.7	95.6	93.9
Rayon and allied products	38.15	37.50	37.57	42.2	42.5	42.7	90.5	88.3	88.0
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	50.08	49.94	49.45	46.1	46.6	45.9	108.6	107.1	107.6
Explosives and safety fuses	47.82	47.28	47.66	46.5	46.9	46.4	102.8	100.9	102.6
Ammunition, small-arms	43.60	42.47	42.25	46.2	46.3	46.4	94.4	91.8	91.1
Fireworks	(4)	(4)	39.10	(4)	(4)	42.6	(4)	(4)	91.9
Cottonseed oil	25.34	23.53	23.04	53.3	48.0	47.2	47.4	48.7	48.5
Fertilizers	29.41	28.51	28.79	44.2	43.8	44.7	66.6	65.1	64.4
Products of petroleum and coal	52.21	52.46	51.14	45.2	46.1	44.9	115.5	113.8	113.9
Petroleum refining	55.20	55.83	54.75	44.9	46.0	45.2	122.4	120.8	121.4
Coke and byproducts [2]	46.30	45.44	42.61	44.8	45.1	42.5	103.4	100.7	100.9
Roofing materials [2]	44.21	44.99	43.40	47.6	49.1	48.9	93.3	91.7	88.8
Rubber products	47.35	44.86	44.94	44.8	44.2	44.1	105.7	101.5	101.9
Rubber tires and inner tubes	55.18	51.54	52.48	45.3	44.3	44.5	122.2	116.4	118.1
Rubber boots and shoes	38.65	37.61	37.25	44.3	44.1	43.8	87.2	85.3	85.1
Rubber goods, other	39.69	38.81	38.01	44.3	44.2	43.8	90.0	87.9	87.1
Miscellaneous industries	41.36	40.58	40.17	45.6	45.8	45.6	90.7	88.6	88.1
Professional and scientific instruments and fire-control equipment	51.87	50.20	51.40	50.3	50.2	50.8	103.7	100.1	101.1
Photographic apparatus [2]	45.44	44.85	44.30	44.8	44.7	45.0	101.6	100.5	98.7
Pianos, organs, and parts [2]	46.24	46.09	46.09	47.6	48.1	47.7	97.3	96.0	96.9

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—*Hours and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*—Continued

NONMANUFACTURING

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	September 1943	August 1943	July 1943	September 1943	August 1943	July 1943	September 1943	August 1943	July 1943
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
Coal mining:									
Anthracite	$43.76	$45.52	$39.69	40.6	42.2	37.7	107.9	107.3	106.3
Bituminous	46.32	46.24	42.76	39.8	40.5	37.1	116.7	114.7	115.0
Metal mining	44.46	45.31	43.36	44.5	46.0	43.7	99.5	98.3	98.6
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	37.54	38.05	36.61	46.3	47.7	46.3	81.1	80.0	79.2
Crude petroleum production	51.13	48.89	49.16	44.4	43.2	43.3	113.0	110.6	111.3
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph	36.42	36.10	35.94	42.3	42.1	42.2	86.3	86.1	85.5
Electric light and power	45.41	45.24	44.86	42.3	42.0	42.0	106.3	107.6	106.0
Street railways and busses	45.15	46.09	44.30	49.1	50.9	49.4	89.4	88.7	88.1
Wholesale trade	40.61	40.44	39.44	42.6	42.9	42.4	95.2	94.4	93.3
Retail trade	25.35	25.98	25.48	40.3	42.1	41.7	68.7	67.8	67.5
Food	30.56	31.63	31.22	40.8	42.7	42.5	68.3	67.6	67.6
General merchandise	20.73	21.22	21.26	36.2	38.2	38.2	56.2	56.0	55.8
Apparel	26.22	26.89	26.25	36.6	38.4	38.1	71.3	69.7	69.2
Furniture and house furnishings	35.47	35.71	35.17	44.0	45.0	44.0	83.3	82.6	82.6
Automotive	37.55	37.70	36.69	47.2	48.4	47.5	81.7	80.2	78.6
Lumber and building materials	35.80	35.51	34.76	43.8	44.0	44.0	84.4	82.1	80.7
Hotels (year-round) [5]	20.60	20.23	20.18	44.8	44.7	44.8	46.1	45.3	45.1
Laundries	24.33	23.80	23.79	44.0	44.0	43.9	56.3	55.0	54.9
Dyeing and cleaning [3]	29.20	28.03	27.55	45.0	44.2	44.1	66.5	64.8	64.1
Brokerage [3]	49.85	50.80	51.12	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Insurance	42.45	42.45	42.44	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Building construction	49.59	48.93	47.97	39.4	39.3	39.0	125.8	124.6	123.1

[1] These figures are based on reports from cooperating establishments covering both full- and part-time employees who worked during any part of one pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. As not all reporting firms furnished man-hour data, average hours and average hourly earnings are based on a smaller sample than are weekly earnings. Data for the current and immediately preceding months are subject to revision.

[2] Comparable data for earlier months back to June 1942 available in mimeographed form upon request.

[3] Revisions have been made as follows in the data published for earlier months:

Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.—August 1942 to March 1943 average weekly earnings to $42.31, $41.48, $42.55, $42.03, $43.12, $44.17, $44.37, and $45.35; May 1942 to October 1942 average weekly hours to 44.7, 43.9 43.5, 45.2, 44.6, and 45.8; May 1942 to January 1943 average hourly earnings to 87.9, 87.9, 88.6, 91.2, 92.4, 92.3 91.5, 92.7, and 94.8 cents. Revised weekly earnings and weekly hours are not strictly comparable with corresponding averages published for earlier months. Comparable weekly earnings for July 1942 are $39.06 and comparable weekly hours for April 1942 are 44.6. Revised average hourly earnings are comparable with data for months prior to May 1942.

Forgings, iron and steel.—April 1942 to February 1943 average weekly earnings to $49.08, $49.48, $49.78, $48.07, $49.71, $48.85, $52.42, $53.11, $56.22, $55.71, and $56.67; average hourly earnings to 101.9, 102.4, 103.4, 102.8, 105.6, 107.7, 109.5, 111.4, 113.7, 113.7, and 115.9 cents. Revised figures are comparable with corresponding averages for March 1942 and earlier months.

Radios and phonographs.—January to June 1943 average weekly hours to 46.1, 46.4, 46.2, 46.5, 46.7, and 46.4; January and March average weekly earnings to $38.99 and $39.01.

Textile machinery.—February 1943 average weekly earnings and average weekly hours to $45.02 and 50.5 hours.

Clocks and watches.—May and June 1942 average hourly earnings to 76.5 and 77.1 cents.

Lighting equipment.—May 1942, June 1942, and June 1943 average hourly earnings to 85.0, 88.2, and 99.5 cents; July 1942, May 1943, and June 1943 average weekly earnings to $40.05, $46.53, and $45.90. Revised average hourly earnings for June 1942 not strictly comparable with averages for July 1942 and subsequent months. June hourly earnings comparable with July are 89.4 cents.

Planing and plywood mills.—April 1942 average weekly hours to 41.8. Revised average not strictly comparable with data for May 1942 and later months. April figure comparable with May would be 42.3 hours.

Furniture.—November 1942 average weekly earnings to $30.10. Revised average not strictly comparable with data for December 1942 and later months. November figure comparable with December would be $30.56.

Brick, tile, and terra cotta.—July 1942 to January 1943 average weekly hours to 38.4, 38.6, 38.3, 39.3, 39.2, 39.4, and 38.0.

Pottery and related products.—April 1942 to December 1942 average hourly earnings to 74.3, 75.5, 76.4, 76.6, 79.0, 77.4, 78.2, 77.9, and 78.4 cents August 1942 to January 1943 average weekly earnings to $30.12, $29.60, $30.78, $31.26, $31.54, and $31.52. Revised weekly earnings not strictly comparable with data for July 1942 and prior months. July weekly earnings comparable with August and later months would be $28.37. Revised hourly earnings are comparable with data published for months prior to April 1942 and subsequent to December 1942.

Women's clothing.—June 1943 average weekly hours to 37.3.

Dyeing and cleaning.—June 1943 average weekly hours 45.2, average hourly earnings 64.8 cents.

Brokerage.—May 1943 average weekly earnings $51.24.

[4] Not available.

[5] Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips not included.

Civilian Labor Force, October 1943

THE civilian labor force declined seasonally by 700,000 persons between September and October 1943 to a total of 52,600,000, according to the Bureau of the Census Monthly Report on the Labor Force. During the month interval, unemployment decreased by 100,000 persons to a record low of 700,000. At the same time, agricultural employment declined by 600,000 persons, while the level of nonagricultural employment remained unchanged.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Civilian Labor Force by Employment Status and Sex, in Selected Months, October 1940–October 1943* [1]

[Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census]

Sex and employment status	Estimated number (millions of persons)				
	October 1943	September 1943	October 1942	October 1941	October 1940
Both sexes	52.6	53.3	54.0	54.1	54.4
Unemployed [2]	.7	.8	1.6	3.9	7.4
Employed	51.9	52.5	52.4	50.2	47.0
Nonagriculture	41.2	41.2	41.9	40.9	37.3
Agriculture	10.7	11.3	10.5	9.3	9.7
Males	35.9	36.2	39.0	40.4	41.3
Unemployed [2]	.4	.4	.9	2.5	5.1
Employed	35.5	35.8	38.1	37.9	36.2
Nonagriculture	26.7	26.7	29.2	29.6	27.4
Agriculture	8.8	9.1	8.9	8.3	8.8
Females	16.7	17.1	15.0	13.7	13.1
Unemployed [2]	.3	.4	.7	1.4	2.3
Employed	16.4	16.7	14.3	12.3	10.8
Nonagriculture	14.5	14.5	12.7	11.3	9.9
Agriculture	1.9	2.2	1.6	1.0	.9

[1] All data exclude persons in institutions.
[2] Includes persons on public emergency projects prior to July 1943.

For the past year, the manpower requirements of industry have been met in large measure by the entrance of new workers into the civilian labor force. The ranks of the unemployed have been a secondary source of industrial recruitment, but unemployment is now at approximately a minimum level. Consequently, the future participation of nonworkers becomes increasingly essential to replace men entering the armed services and to meet war production schedules. In this connection, the period from April to October 1943 indicates that as yet there has been no slack in the participation of these new workers. The increase in the female civilian labor force from spring to autumn has been parallel for the past three years at 1,100,000. Correspondingly, the number of 14–19 year olds, if the number of teen-age boys in the armed forces is included, shows an increase similar to that of last year. In addition, the increase in the number of persons aged 55 and over during the April to October interval was 300,000 both in 1942 and in 1943.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Civilian Labor Force, Employment and Unemployment, by Age and Sex, in September and October 1943 and October 1942* [1]

[Source: U S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census]

Employment status and age	Estimated number (millions of persons)								
	Total			Male			Female		
	October 1943	September 1943	October 1942	October 1943	September 1943	October 1942	October 1943	September 1943	October 1942
Total civilian, labor force	52.6	53.3	54.0	35.9	36.2	39.0	16.7	17.1	15.0
14–19 years	5.0	5.5	5.6	2.5	2.8	3.5	2.5	2.7	2.1
20–24 years	4.8	5.0	6.2	1.9	2.0	3.3	2.9	3.0	2.9
25–34 years	11.2	11.3	12.1	7.4	7.4	8.6	3.8	3.9	3.5
35–44 years	12.1	12.0	11.8	8.5	8.5	8.6	3.6	3.5	3.2
45–54 years	10.1	10.2	9.8	7.8	7.8	7.8	2.3	2.4	2.0
55–64 years	6.6	6.5	5.9	5.4	5.3	4.9	1.2	1.2	1.0
65 years and over	2.8	2.8	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.3	.4	.4	.3
Total persons employed	51.9	52.5	52.4	35.5	35.8	38.1	16.4	16.7	14.3
14–19 years	4.8	5.3	5.3	2.5	2.7	3.3	2.3	2.6	2.0
20–24 years	4.8	4.9	6.0	1.9	1.9	3.2	2.9	3.0	2.8
25–34 years	11.1	11.2	11.9	7.3	7.4	8.5	3.8	3.8	3.4
35–44 years	12.0	11.9	11.5	8.5	8.5	8.5	3.5	3.4	3.0
45–54 years	10.0	10.1	9.5	7.7	7.7	7.7	2.3	2.4	1.8
55–64 years	6.5	6.4	5.7	5.3	5.3	4.7	1.2	1.1	1.0
65 years and over	2.7	2.7	2.5	2.3	2.3	2.2	.4	.4	.3
Total persons unemployed [2]	.7	.8	1.6	.4	.4	.9	.3	.4	.7
14–19 years	.2	.2	.3	(3)	.1	.2	.2	.1	.1
20–24 years	(3)	.1	.2	(3)	.1	.1	(3)	(3)	.1
25–34 years	.1	.1	.2	.1	(3)	.1	(3)	.1	.1
35–44 years	.1	.1	.3	(3)	(3)	.1	(3)	.1	.2
45–54 years	.1	.1	.3	.1	.1	.1	(3)	(3)	.2
55–64 years	.1	.1	.2	.1	(3)	.2	(3)	(3)	(3)
65 years and over	(3)	.1	.1	(3)	(3)	.1	(3)	(3)	(3)

[1] All data exclude persons in institutions.
[2] Persons on public emergency work projects are included with the unemployed prior to July 1943.
[3] Less than 50,000.

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

December 1943

Absenteeism

Absence due to sickness. By Dan L. Lynch, M. D. (In Industrial Medicine, Chicago, September 1943, pp. 575–582, charts. 50 cents.)

The writer believes that if absenteeism is to be properly measured and controlled, a uniform definition of absenteeism should be adopted by industrial establishments so that comparable records may be obtained. Because of the lack of adequate data he thinks the huge estimates of production losses from absenteeism should not be accepted without question.

Sickness absenteeism among male and female industrial workers, 1933–42, inclusive. By W. M. Gafafer. (In Public Health Reports, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Public Health Service, Washington, August 13, 1943, pp. 1250–1254, chart. 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)

Methods of controlling absenteeism. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 8 pp. (Serial No. R. 1548; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, July 1943.) Free.

Cost and Standards of Living

Quantity and cost budget for dependent families or children—prices for San Francisco, March 1943. Berkeley, Calif., University of California, Heller Committee for Research in Social Economics, 1943. 57 pp.; mimeographed. 50 cents.

Wartime budget for a single working woman—prices for San Francisco, March 1943. Berkeley, Calif., University of California, Heller Committee for Research in Social Economics, 1943. 17 pp.; mimeographed. 20 cents.

Civilian apparel. By Kendrick Lee. Washington, Editorial Research Reports, 1013 Thirteenth Street NW., 1943. 14 pp. (Vol. II, 1943, No. 2.) $1.

Gives the reasons for the drain on civilian clothing, namely, diversion of material and equipment for war goods and higher civilian purchasing power, and discusses the outlook on possible clothes rationing.

Recent changes in the character of civilian textiles and apparel. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 14 pp. (Serial No. R. 1573; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, September 1943.) Free.

Cost-of-living quiz: Some common questions on the [Canadian] cost-of-living index answered by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics. Ottawa, [Bureau of Statistics], 1943. 7 pp.

Presentation in simple form of the composition of and wartime changes in the official index numbers of cost of living.

Wartime pattern of saving and spending. By Charles Madge. Cambridge, England, University Press, 1943. 139 pp. 6s.($1.50, Macmillan Co., New York). (National Institute of Economic and Social Research, Occasional papers IV.)

A scientific study of saving and spending among wage earners in Great Britain that was made under a grant from the National Institute of Economic and Social Research.

EDITOR'S NOTE.—Correspondence regarding the publications to which reference is made in this list should be addressed to the respective publishing agencies mentioned. Where data on prices were readily available, they have been shown with the title entries. The amounts do not include postage, and also they are subject to change.

Employment and Unemployment

Municipal employment and pay rolls in large cities, 1929–38. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 28 pp. (Serial No. R. 1540; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, June 1943, with additional data.) Free.

Post-war employment. By Edward S. Conway. London, Jonathan Cape, 1943. 143 pp., charts. 8s. 6d.

The greater part of this book is devoted to the problem of unemployed juveniles in Great Britain and attempts of the Government and private organizations to deal with it. There is a chapter on post-war education and employment problems of ex-servicemen and other adults. Comprehensive plans concerning the training and employment of both juveniles and adults after the war are outlined.

The unemployed—I, Interpretation; II, Case studies. By Eli Ginzberg and others. New York and London, Harper & Bros., 1943. 418 pp. $4.

Deals with the effect of unemployment on the unemployed. Case studies were made among families in New York City representing various religious groups.

Family Allowances

Cash allowances for the families and dependents of soldiers, sailors, and marines. By Otto E. Pfeiffenberger. New York, William Frederick Press, 1943. 60 pp. 50 cents. (Distributed by Pamphlet Distributing Co., 313 West 35th Street, New York City.)

Explains provisions of the Federal Servicemen's Dependents Allowance Act of 1942, and, by means of tables and examples, the calculation of allowances under the act.

A new plea for family allowances. By Eva M. Hubback. London, Family Endowment Society, 1943. 8 pp. 3d.

Presents the case for family allowances, basing the arguments on justice, poverty, and population trends, shows existing State provisions for children in Great Britain, and gives estimates of the cost of family-allowance schemes.

What price children? By F. Emerson Andrews. (In Atlantic Monthly, Boston, November 1943, pp. 94–99. 40 cents.)

Recommends the introduction of cash allowances for children, to help parents meet the cost of their dependents. Gives the coverage, amount of benefits, source of funds, and estimated total cost of a suggested system of such allowances.

Handicapped Workers

Employment of physically handicapped—a review of wartime loss prevention information for industrial executives. Boston, Liberty Mutual Insurance Co., Loss Prevention Department, 1943. 8 pp.

The physically handicapped. By Bernard D. Karpinos. (In Public Health Reports, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Public Health Service, Washington, October 22, 1943, pp. 1573–1592; charts. 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)

The report is based on the National Health Survey of 1935–36. It deals particularly with orthopedic impairments and shows the extent of such disabilities, causes and types of the impairments, employment status of handicapped persons, and racial and economic factors.

The physically handicapped in industrial establishments of the Government—possibilities for their increased placement. By Verne K. Harvey, M. D., and E. Parker Luongo, M. D. New York, American Medical Association, 1943. 8 pp. (Reprinted from Journal of the American Medical Association, Vol. 121, No. 2.)

Use of handicapped workers in war industry. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 9 pp. (Serial No. R. 1574; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, September 1943.) Free.

Blind persons employed in war industries in the United States as of January 1, 1943. Washington, National Society for the Blind, Inc., 1943. 33 pp.; mimeographed.

Issued in cooperation with Service for the Blind, U. S. Office of Education, this report lists the jobs filled by totally or partially blind persons in different companies, by type of job, wage rate, and age and sex of worker.

Health and Industrial Hygiene

1021 answers to industrial health and safety problems. Edited by Jack E. Weiss. Cleveland, Ohio, Occupational Hazards, Inc., 1943. 699 pp., bibliographies, illus. $10.

Conference on industrial health, Westminster, England, April 9–11, 1943—report of proceedings. London, Ministry of Labor and National Service, 1943. 107 pp. 1s. 6d.

Proceedings of a conference which was called to emphasize the importance of industrial health and to elicit further suggestions for promoting it.

Health and industrial efficiency: Scottish experiments in social medicine. Edinburgh, Department of Health for Scotland, 1943. 56 pp. 1s.

Report on various experimental studies in Scotland on certain aspects of the preservation and restoration of working capacity, dealing especially with an investigation of long-term incapacity for work and an account of the Clyde Basin experiment in preventing the break-down of workers, especially young workers.

Chronic pulmonary disease in South Wales coal miners: I, Medical studies; II, Environmental studies. London, Medical Research Council, 1942 and 1943. 2 vols., 222 pp. each. (Special report series Nos. 243 and 244.) 10s. 6d. each.

Tuberculosis survey among the employees of Santiago, Chile. By Benjamin Viel, M. D., and Eduardo A. Jelic, M. D. (In American Journal of Public Health, New York, September 1943, pp. 1088–1092. 50 cents.)

Results of physical examinations of over 25,000 of the approximately 69,000 persons in Santiago insured under the preventive medicine law. A total of 889 active cases of tuberculosis, or 3.50 percent, was found, and 1,113, or 4.35 percent, had signs of residual tuberculosis. No relationship was found between economic status and the incidence of the disease although there was a more favorable response to treatment among the higher-income patients.

Industrial Accidents and Workmen's Compensation

National safety competition of 1942. By W. W. Adams and T. D. Lawrence. Washington, U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Mines, 1943. 44 pp.; mimeographed. (Report of investigations, No. 3723.)

Shows the records of a large number of companies enrolled in the competition to promote safety in the mining and quarrying industries.

Causes and prevention of injuries from falls in shipyards. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 7 pp. (Serial No. R. 1582; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, October 1943.) Free.

Summary and analysis of accidents on steam railways in the United States subject to the Interstate Commerce Act, calendar year 1942. Washington, U. S. Interstate Commerce Commission, Bureau of Transport Economics and Statistics, 1943. 116 pp. (Accident bulletin No. 111.) 25 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

State workmen's compensation legislation in 1943. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 8 pp. (Serial No. R. 1565; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, September 1943.) Free.

Olycksfall i arbete åren 1934–1938. Stockholm, Riksförsäkringsanstalten, 1943. 147 pp.

Report on industrial accidents and diseases and compensation therefor in Sweden during the period 1934 to 1938. Printed in Swedish with a résumé in French, and French equivalents of the table of contents and certain other items.

Industrial Relations

The handbook of industrial relations. Edited by John Cameron Aspley and Eugene Whitmore. Chicago, Dartnell Corp., 1943. 1055 pp. $10.

The book presents the views, the tested methods, the experience, and the practices of companies which have been successful in building sound relationships with their employees, both in the plant and in the office.

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Problems of legislation relating to collective bargaining. By S. Midanik. (In Canadian Journal of Economics and Political Science, Toronto, August 1943, pp. 348–353. $1, Canadian currency.)

This paper examines some of the main problems involved in collective-bargaining legislation and shows how they have been handled in the various Canadian Provinces.

Trends in collective bargaining: A study in causal analysis. By H. A. Logan. (In Canadian Journal of Economics and Political Science, Toronto, August 1943, pp. 331–347. $1, Canadian currency.)

This article deals with experience in Canada and the United States, but is largely concerned with the United States as little pioneering in the field of collective bargaining, the author points out, has taken place in Canada.

Settling plant grievances: A review of grievance procedure under collective bargaining. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1943. 47 pp. (Bull. No. 60.)

Sixth annual report of the Pennsylvania Labor Relations Board, for the calendar year ended December 31, 1942. Harrisburg, 1943. 59 pp.

Union agreements with municipalities. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 6 pp. (Serial No. R. 1552; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, June 1943.) Free.

Strikes and lockouts in Canada and other countries during 1942. (In Labor Gazette, Department of Labor, Ottawa, July 1943, pp. 949–985, charts; also reprinted.)

Detailed statistics on strikes and lockouts in Canada in 1942, by industries, causes and results, etc., with summary data, by year, 1901 to 1942. Comparative figures on number of disputes, number of workers involved, and man-days of working time lost, are given for Canada and the following countries: Argentina, Australia, Ireland, Great Britain and Northern Ireland, British India, New Zealand, South Africa, Sweden, and the United States.

Labor Legislation

The labor-welfare cases—a socio-legal approach. By Julius Cohen. (In University of Chicago Law Review, Chicago, July 1943, pp. 375–416. 75 cents.)

Examines the briefs and arguments used in defending the constitutionality of labor-welfare legislation as applied to cases dealing with such matters as wages, working hours, labor injunctions, and collective bargaining, which resulted in the Supreme Court upholding liberal labor enactments.

Regulatory administration—an exploratory study. Edited by George A. Graham and Henry Reining, Jr. New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1943. 254 pp. $2.75.

The various chapters, by different writers, consider the scope, authority, functions, etc., of governmental regulation in the United States at Federal, State, and local levels. One chapter deals with the evolution of State labor-law administration from mere declarations of rights to the present situation in which a separate labor agency administers labor laws, and enforcement is obtained through the cooperation of employers, labor, and the public.

Hawaii wage and hour law, workmen's compensation law, and certain other laws of the Territory of Hawaii relating to labor. Honolulu, Department of Labor and Industrial Relations, [1943?]. 45 pp.

Labor laws of Kansas, 1942; Supplement—1943 session. Topeka, State Department of Labor, 1942 and 1943. 108 and 7 pp.

Laws of Texas relating to labor, 1943–44. Austin, Texas Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 225 pp.

The industrial worker's guide to his rights and duties. By H. Samuels. London, Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons, Ltd., 1943. 40 pp. 1s.

Simple exposition of the industrial worker's general position under British law in relation to his employment.

Labor Organizations and Congresses

Public regulation of trade unions. By Kendrick Lee. Washington, Editorial Research Reports, 1013 Thirteenth Street NW., 1943. 12 pp. (Vol. I, 1943, No. 14.) $1.

Union rights and union duties. By Joel Seidman. New York, Harcourt, Brace & Co., Inc., 1943. 238 pp. $2.50.

This book contains a brief analysis of the development of the trade-union movement, particularly in the last decade, with emphasis on the economic and political background within which the development took place. It also analyzes the responsibilities which trade-unions must now carry in regard to the membership composing the organization, the employers, and the public at large, and gives some indication as to how these responsibilities could be effectuated.

Acuerdos y resoluciones del III Congreso Nacional de la Confederación de Trabajadores de Cuba. Habana, Confederación de Trabajadores de Cuba, [1943?]. 37 pp.

Summarizes the most important resolutions approved by the Third National Congress of the Cuban Workers' Confederation at Habana, December 9–12, 1942, relating to war and post-war problems, boards of conciliation and arbitration, social security, cost of living, wages and hours of labor, vacations, cooperatives, homework, health and safety, child labor and welfare, unemployment, etc.

British trade-unions. By John Price. London, Longmans Green & Co. (for British Council), 1942. 45 pp., illus. (British life and thought, No. 12.) 1s.

Reviews the need for unions, and the history and activities of British bodies down to and including the present war period.

Forty-fourth annual report of General Federation of Trade-Unions for year ending March 31, 1943. London, 1943. 47 pp.

Covers operations in the past year and forecasts problems of reconstruction. Membership and financial statistics are given.

Report of the 42d annual conference of the [British] Labor Party, London, 1943. London, Labor Party, 1943. 238 pp.

Proceedings of the conference and the national executive committee's report for 1942–43 are included.

Legislación sindical. By Pedro Miguel G. Quijano. (In Revista de Trabajo, Ministerio de Trabajo, Madrid, April, May, July, August, September, and November, 1942.)

A study of Spanish labor organization to October 1942, dealing with its legislative background; national organization, by industries, and its relation and service to the State; provincial and local organization; and administration of the labor-organization system. There is a detailed discussion of 19 national unions (in agriculture, manufacturing, and services) and their work in connection with housing, cooperation, craftsmanship, and colonization.

Old-Age Assistance and Retirement

A study of the developments in programs for the care of the aged (with emphasis on New York State and New York City). By Anne H. Rebeck. New York, Department of Social Welfare, 1943. 141 pp., bibliography.

Subjects covered in the report include institutional care for the aged in public and private homes; general relief and old-age assistance; old-age and survivors' insurance; and nursing and boarding-home care. The need of especially-designed housing facilities for the aged is emphasized.

Twenty-second report of the Comptroller on the operation of the [New York] State employees' retirement system, together with the report of the actuary on the twenty-second valuation of its assets and liabilities, as of June 30, 1942. Albany, 1943. 57 pp. (Legislative document, 1943, No. 49.)

Memoria del Departamento de Hacienda [Argentina], correspondiente al año 1942, Tomo 1. Buenos Aires, 1943. 252 pp.

The report includes a critical examination of the financial and economic condition of four national retirement funds in Argentina, with statistics for the year 1942, showing the number of members and beneficiaries, accumulated capital, actuarial deficits, etc. Some data are also given on operation of the maternity and workmen's compensation funds.

Old-age pensions. By H. R. Burrows and P. J. de Vos. (In South African Journal of Economics, Johannesburg, June 1943, pp. 87–105. 6s.)

Discussion of noncontributory pensions in South Africa, with data on classes of persons covered, number of pensioners, and amount of benefits as of July 1942.

Post-War Reconstruction

A procedure for community post-war planning—jobs and production at war's end: Albert Lea, Minn., charts a course. Washington, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, 1943. 59 pp.

The survey made at Albert Lea under the auspices of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States is described as a precedent which is being followed in other communities. The Albert Lea-Freeborn County Post-War Planning Committee, which had general charge of the survey, consisted mainly of representatives of employers, industrial and agricultural, but certain public officials also were included. An attempt was made to estimate the number of workers who will want jobs and the number of persons who can be employed after the war.

Community action for post-war jobs and profits. Washington, U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, 1943. 32 pp., illus. (Industrial series No. 6.)

Employee rating in post-war readjustment. By S. Avery Raube. (In Conference Board Management Record, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., New York, September 1943, pp. 366, 367, 370.)

A discussion from the point of view of employers on the problems of reducing the number of employees after the war and of transferring workers from wartime to peacetime jobs. As an aid in the handling of these problems it is suggested that merit-rating plans be adopted as soon as practicable for use in post-war readjustments. A specimen "employee inventory sheet" is described.

Planning and reconstruction yearbook, 1943. London, Todd Publishing Co., 1943. 368 pp., bibliography. 21s.

Contains economic and technical monographs on planning subjects, final reports of important committees, and statements on legislation and policies. One section contains official directories of agencies concerned with planning.

Public thinking on post-war problems. By Jerome S. Bruner. Washington, National Planning Association, 1943. 35 pp., charts. (Planning pamphlet No. 23.) 25 cents.

The first report of a public-opinion poll made for the National Planning Association by the Office of Public Opinion Research (Princeton, N. J.), a joint project of Princeton University and the Rockefeller Foundation. The pamphlet deals with the attitude of the public toward plans for employment, demobilization, post-war aid to soldiers, extension of the principles of social security as recommended by the President, and a number of other post-war problems.

Report and recommendations on post-war problems in the States. Chicago, Council of State Governments, 1943. 25 pp.; mimeographed. Tentative draft.

This publication was prepared by the Council's Interstate Committee on Post-war Reconstruction and Development. It is one of a number of publications issued by the Council on problems calling for interstate and Federal consideration and cooperation. In the present report it is stated that a major post-war problem for which a solution must be found is that of full employment for all who want to work. Full employment, however, is seen to depend on factors over which businessmen as such do not have complete control. It is estimated that full employment will require an increase of pre-war national product by about 40 or 50 percent and that this level of production will depend on raising purchasing power and levels of consumption. To facilitate necessary public action for full employment, the Council recommends that a central planning agency be established in each State, with representation that includes labor, and that arrangements be worked out cooperatively by Federal, State, and local agencies.

State legislative developments, 1941–43. Chicago, Council of State Governments, May 1943. 14 pp.; mimeographed. (Research bulletin series on post-war problems.) 50 cents.

Brief analysis of post-war preparations by different States. These preparations are taking the form of boards and agencies designed to handle post-war employment and other problems, and of provisions for the education, rehabilitation, and employment of persons demobilized from the armed forces.

Prices and Price Control

Wholesale prices [in the United States], July–December and year 1942. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 58 pp. (Bull. No. 736.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

El nuevo índice de precios al mayoreo en la ciudad de México de la Secretaría de la Economía Nacional. By Federico Bach and Margarita Reyna. (In El Trimestre Económico, México, D. F., April–June 1943, pp. 1–63.)
Detailed account of the formation, and an interpretation, of the new wholesale-price index for the city of Mexico, prepared by the Ministry of National Economy, with detailed statistical tables for various years including 1942.

The literature of OPA—administrative techniques in wartime. By John W. Willis. (In Michigan Law Review, Ann Arbor, October 1943, pp. 235–256. $1.)
Describes the various regulations, orders, interpretations, forms, opinions, and other procedural documents evolved by the U. S. Office of Price Administration in regulating prices and rents, and in rationing.

The price control and subsidy program in Canada. By Jules Backman. Washington, Brookings Institution, 1943. 68 pp. (Pamphlet No. 52.) 50 cents.
The author concludes that the price-control program has been effectively administered, but its future is clouded by many pressures for increases.

Price control in South America. By Seymour E. Harris. (In Foreign Commerce Weekly, U. S. Department of Commerce, Washington, October 23, 1943, pp. 12, 13, 42. 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)
General discussion of the price situation and of attempts to control prices and combat inflation in South America.

Sickness Insurance and Medical Care

Canada's health program. (In International Labor Review, Montreal, October 1943, pp. 466–478. 60 cents. Also reprinted.)
Account of the proposals of the Canadian Advisory Committee on Health Insurance outlining the scope, contributions, and benefits of the proposed contributory plan.

Health for all. By D. Stark Murray. London, Victor Gollancz, Ltd., 1942. 143 pp. 6s.
Suggestions for a fully organized medical service in Great Britain are summarized, the advantages of a socialized service are discussed, and a practical scheme for the medical service of the future is outlined.

Health services in industry. London, Industrial Welfare Society, 1942. 60 pp., bibliography. 2s. 6d.
Discusses the need for factory medical services and the different types of services that may be provided.

Kaiser wakes the doctors. By Paul De Kruif. New York, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1943. 158 pp. $2.
Account of the prepayment medical plan in the Kaiser shipyards.

Social Security

Jobs and security for tomorrow. By Maxwell S. Stewart. New York, Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1943. 31 pp., charts. (Public affairs pamphlet No. 84.) 10 cents.
The pamphlet contains material from the National Resources Planning Board reports on security, work, and relief policies and national resources development, together with the U. S. Social Security Board's recommendations for revision of the Social Security Act.

Social security yearbook for the calendar year 1942. Washington, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, 1943. 216 pp., charts. 50 cents.
Review of the work of the Social Security Board during 1942, with data on expenditures and beneficiaries under the different social-security systems.

Los profesionales liberales brasileros frente al seguro social. By A. F. Cesarino Junior. (In Previsión Social, Ministerio de Salubridad, Previsión y Asistencia Social, Departamento de Previsión Social, Santiago, Chile, January–February–March 1943, pp. 9–25.)
Discusses social insurance for the professions in Brazil, gives an account of attempts made to solve the problem by mutual-aid and social-welfare funds and of proposals for retirement and pension institutes, and presents the author's suggestions for the possible solution of the problem.

Bases para establecer el seguro de enfermedad y otros seguros sociales en Cuba. By Oswaldo Morales Patiño. (In Trabajo, Ministerio del Trabajo, Habana, July 1943, pp. 1041–1124; bibliography.)

Sixteen social-insurance funds operative in Cuba are listed, with the legal basis of each. These funds are classified according to type and field of application. Statistics of operation for varying periods from 1937 to 1939 are presented for the funds providing workmen's compensation, maternity aid, and medical service. Certain additional data relating to the maternity and medical services are given. Finally, a proposed scheme is outlined for a central social-insurance system in Cuba, to be supervised by the Ministry of Labor.

Insurance for all and everything. By Ronald C. Davison. London, Longmans, Green & Co., 1943. 32 pp. 1s. 6d.

Summary of the provisions of the Beveridge social-security plan for Great Britian and a discussion of how it would work.

Riksförsäkringsanstalten år 1941. Stockholm, Riksförsäkringsanstalten, 1943. 24 pp.

Report on operation of the Swedish social-insurance system in 1941. Printed in Swedish with a résumé in French and French equivalents of the table of contents and certain other items.

Wages and Hours of Labor

Pay differentials for night work under union agreements. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 13 pp. (Bull. No. 748; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, July 1943, with additional data.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

The ten-hour workday in factories—summary of experience. Washington, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Department of Manufacture, 1943. 7 pp.; mimeographed.

Summary of information furnished by 116 companies in metal-working industries. Of these companies, 61 had operated on a 10-hour-day, 2-shift basis. This basis of operation had been abandoned, however, by 13 of the companies. The chief reason given for adopting the schedule of two 10-hour shifts was the prevalence of manpower shortages, but of the 33 employers who answered a question relating to the effect on total production, 13 stated that total production had been reduced.

U. E. guide to wage payment plans, time study, and job evaluation. New York, United Electrical, Radio & Machine Workers of America, 1943. 127 pp., charts.

Description of the various types of wage-payment systems, particularly those that may be regarded as incentive systems. The study of incentive plans includes the amount by which wages increase with each increase in production; the methods of determining job tasks or standards, especially time-study methods; and analyzing of job values and classifications for determining the comparative value of each job, as in the point-rating procedure. It is stated that the literature relating to incentive wages is scarce and is for the most part written from the point of view of management rather than of labor; this guide was therefore prepared to make information more readily available to the members of the union. It is further stated that unless proper controls and safeguards can be obtained, so-called incentive systems will result in speed-up, demoralization, and, in the long run, in unsatisfactory production, but that the union favors incentive operations under proper safeguards and controls.

Report of the Wages Committee [Palestine]. Jerusalem, Government Printer, 1943. 60 pp. 300 mils.

The committee was appointed to study and report on the present subsistence level of the unskilled worker and to recommend methods of determining the standard wage of such a worker, of calculating the standard wage of workers of a higher type than the unskilled group, and of computing a cost-of-living allowance scale. The committee was also charged with the responsibility of advising as to the requisite legislation for making its recommendations effective.

Los salarios en relación con la familia y el rendimiento. By Eugenio Pérez Botija. (In Revista de Trabajo, Ministerio de Trabajo, Madrid, September, October, and November 1942, pp. 959–972, 1108–1116, 1133–1245.)

A study of wages in relation to the needs of the family, with special reference to Spain, describing various theories of wage determination on the basis of piece work and bonuses and citing Spanish wage legislation through July 16, 1942, authorizing piece-work rates. There is a discussion of the family wage (family allowances), including its economic and legal bases, and a summary of Spanish legislation on the family wage through December 11, 1942, and of Portuguese legislation through August 13, 1942.

Wartime Conditions and Policies

Selected and annotated bibliography on raw materials in a wartime economy. Washington, Library of Congress, Legislative Reference Service, 1943. 104 pp.; mimeographed. (Bibliographies of the world at war No. III, Natural resources and raw materials, supplement No. 1, April–December 1942.) Limited free distribution to libraries.

Selective service in wartime: Second report of the Director of Selective Service, 1941–42. Washington, U. S. Selective Service System, 1943. 674 pp., charts, illus. $1.

Various chapters and many of the tables in this report contain labor data. Subjects covered include the manpower problems of the Selective Service in 1942 and 1943, fluctuations of the manpower pool, dependency and the Servicemen's Dependents Allowance Act of 1942, war production—essential industry, womanpower and Selective Service, Negroes and the Selective Service, and re-employment.

A survey of the war situation and post-war problems. By Ernest Bevin. London, Transport & General Workers' Union, 1943. 24 pp.

Spare time—a war asset for war workers. Washington, Federal Security Agency, Office of Community War Services, Division of Recreation, 1943. 60 pp.

Describes methods by which public and private agencies and other groups are meeting the recreation needs of war workers in various localities, and makes suggestions for mobilizing facilities and recreation workers.

Economic rehabilitation of prisoners of war in France. (In International Labor Review, Montreal, October 1943, pp. 434–446. 60 cents.)

Account of the organization which has been established in France for the rehabilitation of prisoners.

Changes in war pensions. London, Ministry of Pensions, 1943. 12 pp. (Cmd. 6459.) 2d.

Gives the new pension rates for different types of war disablement, for different grades of officers and men in Great Britain's armed services.

Women in Industry

Employment of women in the machine-tool industry, 1942. By Dorothy K. Newman and Martha J. Ziegler. Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, 1943. 42 pp., illus. (Bull. No. 192–4.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Employment of women in petroleum refineries. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 7 pp. (Serial No. R. 1558; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, August 1943.) Free.

Part-time employment of women in wartime. Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, 1943. 17 pp. (Special bull. No. 13.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Wartime pay of women in industry. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1943. 31 pp. (Studies in personnel policy, No. 58.)

Included in the major subjects of this study are: How men's jobs have been changed for woman workers, hours and shifts worked by women, starting rates, automatic progression, upgrading, comparable production, and how new rates are determined on adjusted jobs.

The land girl: A handbook for the Women's Land Army [Great Britain]. By Wilfred E. Shewell-Cooper. London, English Universities Press, Ltd., 1942. 123 pp. 2d ed., revised. 1s.

Women in war factories [Great Britain]. By Amabel Williams-Ellis. London, Victor Gollancz, Ltd., 1943. 95 pp. 1s.

General Reports

Labor in the war—and after. (In Antioch Review, Vol. III, No. 3, Yellow Springs, Ohio, fall 1943. 75 cents.)

This issue of the Antioch Review features a group of articles dealing with various phases of war and post-war problems in which labor is particularly interested. The articles cover such topics as programs for maintaining full production and full employment after the war, opposition to labor organizations, unions and the race question, labor's participation in the making of peace, the working out of democratic principles in the national economy, and encouragement of democracy in labor unions themselves.

Labor conditions in Bulgaria. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 17 pp. (Serial No. R. 1580; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, October 1943.) Free.

Free China's new deal. By Hubert Freyn. New York, Macmillan Co., 1943. 277 pp. $2.50.

The book deals primarily with the national resources of the country and their utilization, and modernization in the various Provinces, but there are sections on labor organization, industrial cooperatives, price movements, and living standards. The general post-war outlook is discussed, and, in an appendix, the provisions of the 3-year plan for wartime reconstruction are given.

Síntesis estadística de Colombia, 1941. Bogotá, Contraloría General de la República, Dirección Nacional de Estadística, 1942. 155 pp.

Detailed statistical report for Colombia giving comparative population figures from the censuses of 1918, 1928, 1938, and 1941 (estimates), and data on external migratory movements of population by nationality, 1939–41; number and membership of labor organizations, December 1941; employment and monthly salaries in public service, 1939–41; number of railroad workers, 1937–41; daily wages in agriculture, with and without board, of workers over 18 years of age, by sex and by geographical divisions, 1940–41; industrial wage indexes for Bogotá, by sex, 1938–41; and number and membership of cooperatives, by type and by geographical location, 1941.

German Home Front. By William W. Schütz. London, Victor Gollancz, Ltd., 1943. 312 pp. 10s. 6d.

Analysis of trends in the social and political situation in Germany during 1942, primarily based upon press accounts from newspapers of Germany and various neutral countries. Part I deals with certain military and psychological phases of the war against Russia. In Part II, the major part of the book, the author surveys the terroristic means employed by the Nazi Party in attempting to counteract the active antagonism of the various opposition groups, as well as the general decline in the morale of the German people. One chapter deals with labor, relating in particular to the most important developments in the relationship between the German workers and the Nazis in 1941–42.

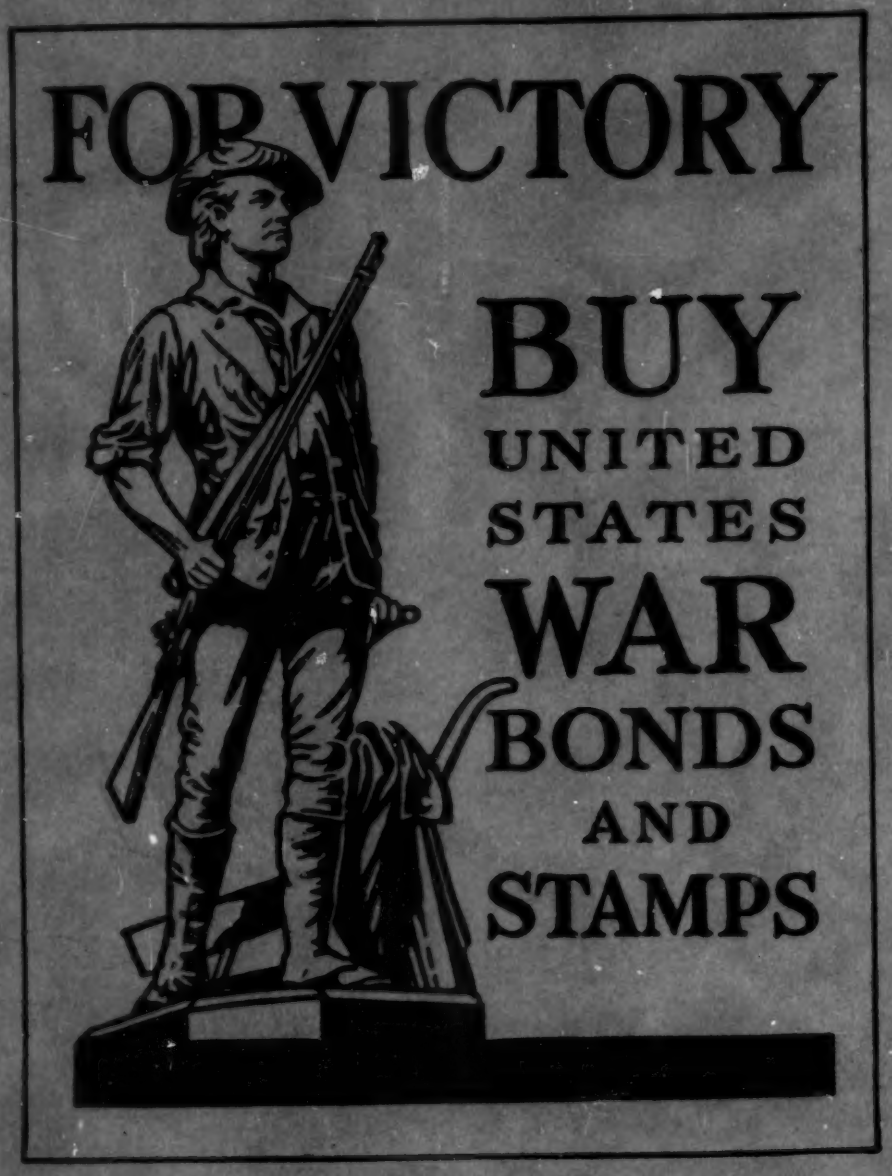
What future for Italy? By C. Grove Haines. (In Foreign Policy Reports, New York, October 1, 1943, pp. 170–179. 25 cents.)

Includes discussion of the position of labor under fascism, and of land tenure.

Reports of the National Service Department and of the Industrial Manpower Division [New Zealand]. Wellington, 1943. 60 pp.

Covers activities under the war powers to mobilize the armed forces and civilian manpower.

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1943



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Bureau of Labor Statistics

Wage stabilization in California airframe industry, 1943. (Reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, June 1943, with additional data.) Bulletin No. 746. Price, 5 cents.

Directory of consumers' cooperatives in the United States, as of January 1, 1943. Bulletin No. 750. Price, 15 cents.

Hours and earnings in the fertilizer industry, January 1943. (Reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, August 1943.) Bulletin No. 751. Price, 5 cents.

Earnings in ship construction yards, fall of 1942. (Reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, August 1943.) Bulletin No. 752. Price, 10 cents.

Pay differentials for night work under union agreements. (Reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, July 1943, with additional data.) Bulletin No. 748. Price, 5 cents.

Children's Bureau

The selection and training of volunteers in child care. Publication 299. Price, 10 cents.

Understanding juvenile delinquency. Publication 300. Price, 10 cents.

Controlling juvenile delinquency—A community program. Publication 301. Price, 10 cents.

Division of Labor Standards

Settling plant grievances. Bulletin No. 60.

Joint safety committees at work. Bulletin No. 61. Price, 10 cents.

Principal features of workmen's compensation laws, as of September 1943. (Reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, October 1943.) Bulletin No. 62.

Wartime working conditions: Minimum standards for maximum production. Special Bulletin No. 13.

Women's Bureau

Safety caps for women machine operators. Supplement to Special Bulletin 9. (Obtainable from Women's Bureau.)

Legal status of women in the U. S. A. Supplement to Bulletin 157. Price, 5 cents.